

CHINA:
IMPERIAL MARITIME CUSTOMS.

I.—STATISTICAL SERIES: No. 6.

DECENNIAL REPORTS

ON THE

**TRADE, NAVIGATION, INDUSTRIES, ETC., OF THE PORTS OPEN
TO FOREIGN COMMERCE IN CHINA,**

AND ON THE

CONDITION AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE TREATY PORT PROVINCES,

1892-1901,

WITH MAPS, DIAGRAMS, AND PLANS.

SECOND ISSUE.

Vol. I.—NORTHERN AND YANGTZE PORTS.

Published by Order of the Inspector General of Customs.

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1904.

NOTE.

THE average exchange value of the HAIKUAN TAX in 1892 and 1901 was as follows:—

	1892.	1901.
In English money	4s. 4½d.	2s. 11½d.
„ American „ Gold	\$ 1.07	\$ 0.72
„ French „ Francs	5.49	3.73
„ German „ Marks	4.44	3.02
„ Indian „ Rupees	3.00	2.22
„ Mexican dollars	\$ 1.54	\$ 1.52

THE following tables show the CHINESE WEIGHTS AND MEASURES with the approximate equivalence of the standards adopted by the Imperial Maritime Customs:—

WEIGHT.

10 Li, 釐	= 1 Fen.	
10 Fen, 分 (Candareen)	= 1 Ch'ien.	
10 Ch'ien, 錢 (Mace)	= 1 Liang	= { 583.3 grains (1½ oz. av.) 37.783 grammes.
16 Liang, 兩 (Tael)	= 1 Chin.	
100 Chin, 斤 (Catty)	= 1 Tan, 担 (Picul)	= { 133½ lb. 60.453 kilogrammes.

LENGTH.

10 Fen, 分	= 1 Ts'un.	
10 Ts'un, 寸 (Inch)	= 1 Ch'ih	= { 14.1 inches, English. 0.358 mètres.
10 Ch'ih, 尺 (Foot)	= 1 Chang.	
180 Chang, 丈	= 1 Li, 里 (nominal)	= { 2,115 feet, English. 619.25 mètres.

AREA.

25 Square Ch'ih, 尺 = 1 Pu (or Kung, 弓).	10 Ssu, 絲 = 1 Hao.
240 Pu, 步 = 1 Mou.	10 Hao, 毫 = 1 Li.
100 Mou, 畝 = 1 Ch'ing, 頃.	10 Li, 釐 = 1 Fen.
	10 Fen, 分 = 1 Mou, 畝.

1892~1901 十年海關報告·上卷目錄

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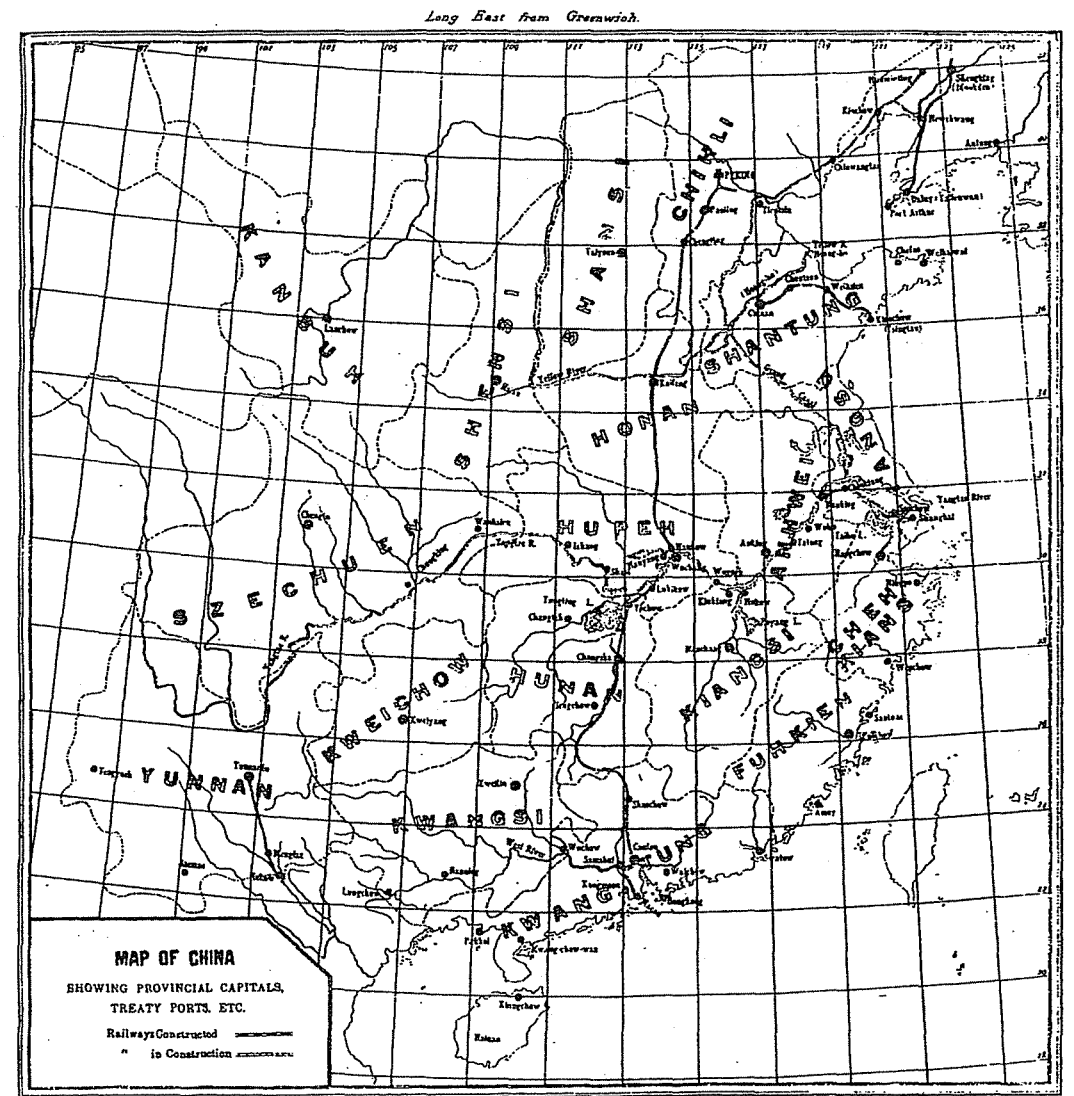
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1892~1901

十年海關報告·上卷

(華北及長江各埠)

1891-1931
 臺灣海關報告
 (臺灣海關統計年報)



DECENNIAL REPORTS, 1892-1901.

CIRCULAR No. 524, SECOND SERIES.

INSPECTORATE GENERAL OF CUSTOMS,
PEKING, 9th December 1890.

SIR,

1.—THE annual Trade Reports as called for by Circular No. 3 of 1865, and which were published separately, were directed to be discontinued by Circular No. 200, Second Series, of 1882; and those substituted have since then appeared in the same volume with the Trade Returns, and are limited to four pages and as far as possible confined to remarks on the trade of the port. The instructions of Circulars Nos. 200, 476, and 523, Second Series, are to rule till further orders, but as it will be advisable to have papers of the old kind issued every 10 years, to serve as general records of the decennary, I have now to instruct you to prepare such a paper during the year 1891, in addition to the four-page Trade Report, for publication under the date of the 31st December 1891.

2.—The paper now called for is to be made as interesting as possible, and may extend to 30 pages, and, whatever else your local knowledge enables you to add, such subjects as the following ought not to be omitted:—

- (a.) The period since the last similar paper (1881) is to be reviewed and the chief occurrences of the 10 years at your port and in your district and province are to be adverted to.
- (b.) Changes in trade, whether in channels, demand, or supply, as also disappearance of old and appearance of new commodities, together with decrease and increase in total value of trade and any striking fluctuations in value of commodities, are to be stated.
- (c.) Growth or decrease of Revenue, whether as regards its sum total or its divisions or the parts of it derived from special commodities, is to be shown.

B

- (d.) The condition of the Opium trade, the quantities annually disposed of, the prices obtained for the various kinds, the extent to which Native varieties—with their prices and producing places—have competed both in your district and in places formerly supplied from your port, are all to be described.
- (e.) The state of the money market, with rates showing (1°) how much English sterling the Haikwan tael exchanged for every year, and (2°) how many local cash, and also showing whether at your port or in your district or in producing places for which your port is the outlet the Haikwan tael has continued to buy as much Native produce as, or more or less than, formerly.
- (f.) How, regarding your port as independent and unconnected with other Treaty ports, the values of goods arrived and goods departed [treated as the Statistical Secretary treated "the balance of trade question" in his Report for 1889, i.e., value of Imports (*minus* Import Duty and charges) at moment of landing and value of Exports (*plus* Export Duty and charges) at moment of shipment] compared.
- (g.) Whether any special changes have taken place at your port in respect of the number, composition, character, or occupation of its population, Chinese or Foreign.
- (h.) Whether improvements of any kind have been made in the shape of bunds, roads, police, street-lighting, etc.
- (i.) Whether any changes have occurred in the water approaches to the ports, such as shoaling, closing, deepening, dredging of channels.
- (j.) Whether any new aids to navigation, such as lights, buoys, and beacons, etc., have been added in your district.
- (k.) Whether any unhappy occurrences have been recorded in your province, such as strange accidents, epidemics, typhoons, inundations, droughts, insurrections, etc., and what notable steps, public or private, were taken to meet the occasion.
- (l.) Whether any noteworthy event has occurred, such as the visit and reception of a distinguished personage, and how it passed off.
- (m.) What number of high degrees were won by your province at the Peking examinations, and the names of the period's provincial *chuang-yüan*, *pang-yen*, and *t'an-hua*.

- (n.) Whether there has been any special literary movement in the province, such as the establishment or renewal of public libraries, literary clubs, great donations or bequests for literary purposes.
- (o.) What is the number of *hsiu-ts'ai* and *chü-jên* allowed to the province, and what is supposed to be the population, and the per-centage of persons who cannot read, and whether there are females who receive some education.
- (p.) What is the general physical character and what are the principal natural products and chief industries of the province, and whether it is porters, animals, or boats that are usually employed for transport.
- (q.) What the Native shipping of your port amounts to, and how many varieties of junks there are, with the Chinese name of each variety and the kinds of trade they engage in and the ports they trade to, and any particulars respecting the papers they take out, the crews they carry, the capital represented by them, the profits of voyages, the per-centage of losses, and whether they have any form of Native insurance.
- (r.) What Native banking agencies exist, what places they deal with, and what are their rates and style of work.
- (s.) What Native postal agencies exist and how are they managed, and to and from what places do they send and receive letters, and how and where the postage is paid.
- (t.) Whether in your own immediate department, the Customs, anything special has occurred, such as important changes in regulations, noteworthy additions to your staff, increase in either the volume or divisions of work, etc.
- (u.) Whether from the Foreign point of view any special development has been taking place in your neighbourhood in either military, naval, industrial, financial, or administrative matters, etc.
- (v.) What missionary societies are represented in your province, and what is the number of missionaries and converts, etc.
- (w.) What provinces have *hui-kuan* at your port and in what provinces your port has *hui-kuan*, with the rules of these clubs or guilds and the privileges and duties of membership, etc.

- (x.) What celebrated officials have either held office in or sprung from your province during the period, etc.
- (y.) Whether any celebrated book has appeared in your province during the period, etc.
- (z.) Whether the history of the locality during the period, or its condition and circumstances at the end of 1891, give any indication of what its future is to be, etc., etc.

3.—What precedes, without being exhaustive, will to some extent give you immediate help in respect of the direction your preparatory inquiries are to take, and will show you the kind of paper I wish you to prepare; but after reading it you ought at once to run through the Reports written by your predecessors, as well those of the old style before as of the new after 1881, and decide for yourself what parts of them may be reproduced or what points in them ought to be taken up and either enlarged upon, modified, controverted, or adverted to. It will also be worth while to consider whether you would not do well to distribute some of the headings (α.) to (z.) among your staff, and direct them, Chinese as well as Europeans, to make some inquiries for you in the directions and concerning the subjects I have indicated. The Monthly Reports of Occurrences for the last 10 years ought also to be looked over by one of your staff, and such items made a note of as are fitted to assist in compiling the Decennial Report.

4.—The Report is to be dated the 31st December 1891, and is to be in the hands of the Statistical Secretary before the end of March 1892. After a similar period shall have expired, a Decennial Report is again to be written, to be dated 31st December 1901, and so on.

I am,

SIR,

Your obedient Servant,

ROBERT HART,

Inspector General.

To

THE COMMISSIONERS OF CUSTOMS.

CIRCULAR NO. 561, SECOND SERIES.

INSPECTORATE GENERAL OF CUSTOMS,

PEKING, 15th January 1892.

SIR,

SINCE the issue of Circular No. 524, calling for

Decennial Reports,

the unforeseen troubles of the year have seriously interfered with their preparation. The intention of producing an 1891 volume has, however, not been abandoned, but, seeing that it can neither be made to cover all the ground sketched out nor be ready by the date fixed on, I now write to instruct you to act as follows:—

- 1°. The Report is to be dated 31st December 1891, but need not be in the hands of the Statistical Secretary till the end of August 1892.
- 2°. The subjects set forth under the letters *a, b, c, d, e, f, i, j, t, u,* and *z* are to be properly discussed.
- 3°. Such of the other subjects under the letters *g, h, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, v, w, x,* and *y* as you are not prepared to deal with may be passed over on this occasion; but if you have any remarks to make on any or on all of them, you are, of course, at liberty to include them.
- 4°. The first paper in the volume will be the Circular itself, No. 524, and perhaps this one also. Each Report is to observe the sequence set forth in the Circular and is to commence each division of subjects with the initial letter, no matter whether there are or are not remarks to follow; thus—

(a.)	_____	(remarks).
(b.)	_____	(remarks).
(g.)	* * * * *	(no remarks).
(h.)	* * * * *	(no remarks).

x

DECENNIAL REPORTS, 1892-1901.

5°. In some provinces there are several Custom Houses; still, seeing that all localities do not afford precisely the same opportunities for gathering such information regarding provincial matters as is called for, it is best for each to act independently and contribute the result of its own inquiries and studies just as if the same province had no other Custom House. Subsequent Decennial Reports will be able to correct discrepancies and cut out redundancies and repetitions: what is wanted at first is material.

I am,

SIR,

Your obedient Servant,

ROBERT HART,

Inspector General.

To

THE COMMISSIONERS OF CUSTOMS.

CIRCULAR NO. 966, SECOND SERIES.

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CIRCULAR No. 966, SECOND SERIES.

INSPECTORATE GENERAL OF CUSTOMS,

PEKING, 15th January 1901.

SIR,

1.—It is time to call attention to Circulars Nos. 524 and 561 of 9th December 1890 and 15th January 1892:

Decennial Reports:

and to remind you that the second set is to be prepared this year, to be dated 31st December (Circular 524, § 4), and to be in the hands of the Statistical Secretary before the end of March 1902. The instructions of Circular 524, § 2, (a.) to (z.), and Circular 561, 4° and 5°, still suffice for guidance and do not call for any modification.

* * * * *

I am,

SIR,

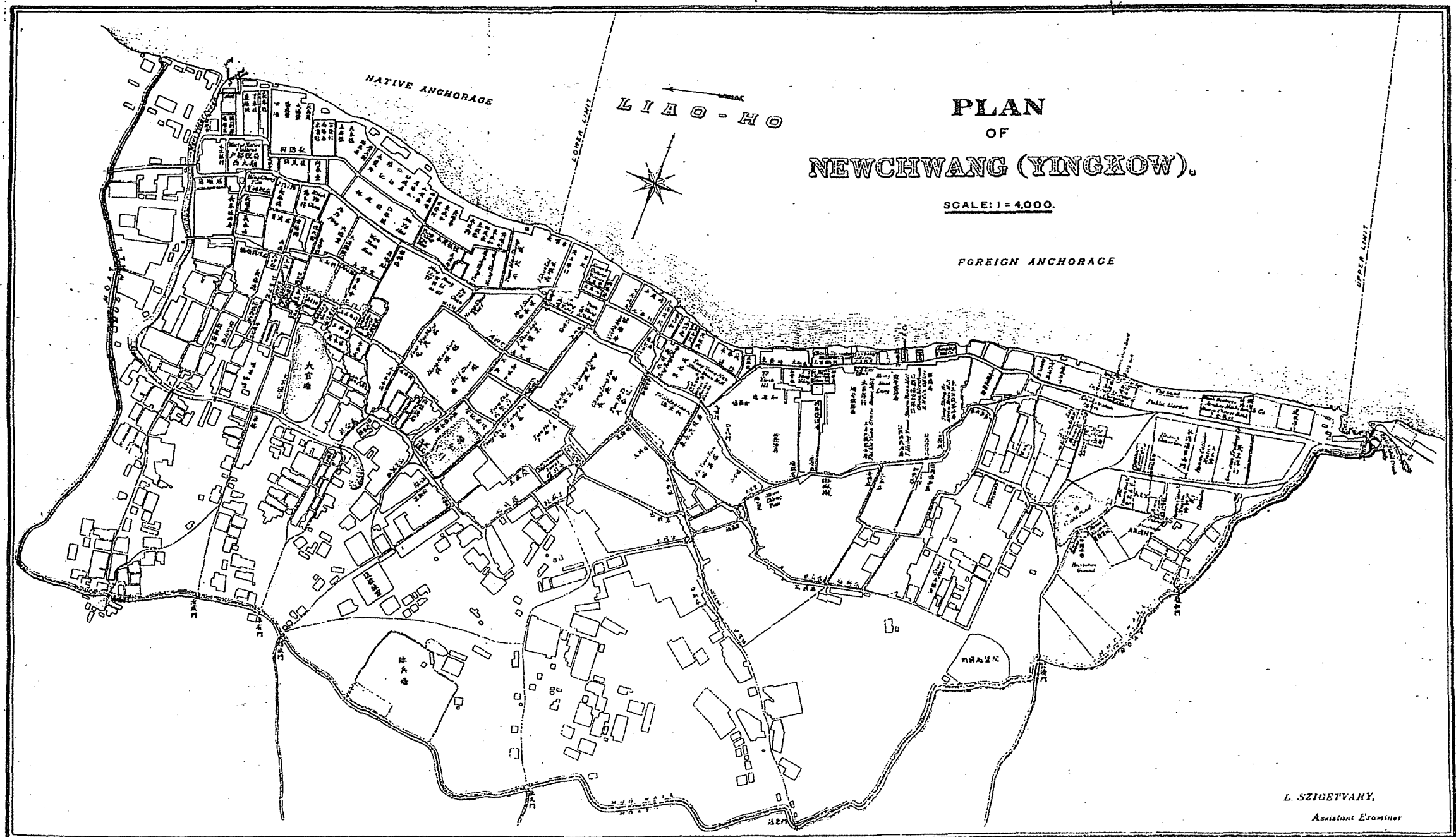
Your obedient Servant,

ROBERT HART,

Inspector General.

To

THE COMMISSIONERS OF CUSTOMS.



NEWCHWANG.

DECENNIAL REPORT, 1892-1901.

THE PORT OF NEWCHWANG: NAME, ORIGIN, AND HISTORY.—The town of Yingkow (營口), usually but erroneously called Newchwang by Foreigners, was officially opened to Western commerce by the arrival of the British Consul, Mr. T. T. MEADOWS, in May 1861. Foreign ships had indeed visited the place a year or two before. Mr. ALEX. MICHIE records how he was the first to fly the British flag in the Liao River, in May 1859. The vessel in which he penetrated into this then remote and unknown region was "one smart English schooner, loaded with mixed merchandise, and commanded by a sea-dog who left a trail of vernacular in his wake."* To the first-comers Yingkow must have looked a bleak and desolate spot enough. In winter its surroundings were an arctic waste; in summer, a dreary expanse of mud, swamp, and reeds met the eye; while the town itself was a wretched mud village struggling for existence on what not so very many years before had been the bed of the sea. A century or so ago the present site of the town was a salt marsh, flooded by the incoming tide. A small creek, called the West Tidal Creek (西潮溝), winds its muddy way through the western part of the modern town, meeting the river at the western extremity. Upon the banks of this creek rose the beginnings of the port. A slight elevation of the soil above the usual level of high water gave a coigne of vantage upon which a few fishermen, plying their calling upon the coast of the Liaotung Gulf, built their huts. At high tide the creek disappeared under the flood, whence the little settlement became called Mu-kou-ying (沒溝營), "No Creek Camp." This name is still the full official designation of the port and appears in title-deeds. In time it became colloquially shortened to Ying-tzū, "The Encampment"—of squatters, however, and having no military sense, as is often wrongly stated. The name Yingkow (*kou* signifying mouth or port) came gradually into use as the place grew into importance as a port. The Russian version of this name is Inko, Inkoo, or Inkau: it must be indeed difficult when this mysterious appellation appears in English papers, among news derived from Russian sources, for the uninitiated English reader to realise that it represents the Treaty port of Newchwang.

Yingkow had little or no trade before the "thirties." It then took the place of Tien-chuang-t'ai (田莊台), still a considerable mart, about 20 miles higher up the river, which had in like manner supplanted "Newchwang proper" (牛莊城) some time in the latter half of the 18th century. Both changes were due to the shallowing of the river, which has also considerably changed its course in recent times. As an example of this, in 1865 Tien-chuang-t'ai was 40 miles distant by river from this port, whereas now it is only 20 miles away. Trade had thus long deserted the inland town of Newchwang when the British Treaty of 1858 declared

* "Englishman in China," vol. I, pp. 221, 222.

it an open port. The fact shows into what an unknown region the door was opened by the "Treaty of Peace, Friendship, Commerce, and Navigation." The Treaty-makers indeed can only have plunged in the dark by declaring a Treaty port the principal town marked on the map as nearest to the mouth of the Liao. Mr. MEADOWS, upon his arrival, found that Ying-kow was the place of trade, Newchwang having decayed to an unimportant village; so here the British Consulate was established and here the Foreign merchants settled. With a fine disregard of actualities, the place was rechristened "Newchwang."

No Foreign traveller seems to have come here in the pre-Treaty days. GUTZLAFF, who got as far as Chin-chou-fu (錦州府) in his enterprising voyage "along the coast of China to Manchou Tartary" * in 1831, gives some account of the junk trade between these parts and the southern provinces. Chin-chou-fu, Kai-chou (or Kai-ping-hsien (薊平縣)), and Chin-chou-t'ing (金州廳) were the great ports on the Liaotung Gulf in his time. What he describes as "peas and drugs" were important articles of export then as they are to this day. The trade even then was considerable and was mainly, as it is now, in the hands of southern Chinese merchants.

The first three decades of the life of the Treaty port were not marked by any very conspicuous events. A very fair Foreign trade sprang at once into being; but so far as Foreign merchants were concerned, their interest in it was, as it is to a great extent to this day, largely confined to the carrying of the merchandise inwards and outwards in Foreign vessels. The carrying trade of those days was almost entirely done by sailing vessels of small tonnage, of which, at times, 70 or 80 would lie moored in two lines along the whole front of the town. The Foreign Customs opened an office on the 9th May 1864. Before that year the Duties were collected by the Shanhaikwan Taotai, who sent over a Shupan for that purpose. In its early years the port was remarkable chiefly for lawlessness, which rendered trade operations difficult. Chinese rule hardly was established in the place, which was crowded with outlaws, ruffians, and rowdies seeking an asylum from China proper. In 1866 the Shanhaikwan Taotai, having military and Customs jurisdiction, transferred his headquarters to this port, with the object of establishing some semblance of order. Before this there was no Chinese military establishment in the place. His arrival improved matters in the port, and the interior slowly settled down as Chinese civilisation pushed its way in the three provinces. Progress was tardy, however. Trade grew but slowly. For a long time it was thought that Manchuria would never offer a great market for Foreign goods. After 20 years of intercourse the value of the trade showed but little advance and the number of Foreign merchants was, if anything, less than in the earliest days. Newchwang, as it was one of the most remote, was one of the least, of the ports. Somnolency seemed to have marked it for its own, and one would have been prescient indeed who could have foreseen the startling developments of recent years. It was towards the end of the third decade that the awakening came. Suddenly almost it began to appear that a bright commercial future lay before Newchwang. The year 1890 showed a notable increase in trade, due, to some extent perhaps, to a more careful valuation of commodities which was introduced in that year, but chiefly to an actual increase in the body of merchandise. The following years gave

* "Chinese Repository," vol. I, pp. 190-192.

still larger results, and the decade 1892-1901 was remarkable for a series of mercantile developments perhaps unparalleled in the history of the China trade. Regarded from the standpoint of volume of commerce, Newchwang became one of the most important of the Treaty ports. The very aspect of the place underwent a rapid change during these last years. The mud village of the "sixties" grew into a rich and populous town, with many fine shops, houses, and temples, and with something of a modern look, due to the tall chimneys of the steam bean-cake factories. The river was crowded with great steamers, and the chant of the boatmen on the numberless Native craft intermingled with the scream of the steam-launch; the Foreign quarter, once consisting of a few semi-Chinese cottages, exhibited quite a pretentious array of European buildings—the mansion of the merchant, the church, the hospital, the hotel,—with lower evidences of civilisation in the shape of the grog shop; whilst a few miles off, on either side, were the two Railway Settlements, already little towns themselves. Add to these changes the outward and visible signs of the Russian military occupation in the year 1901, the European carriages and horses and the jinrikshas on the roads, as well as the number of Foreigners of all nationalities to be seen in the streets, and it will be realised that the sleepy bean mart of the old days has passed away for ever.

Economical and political causes both contributed towards this sudden start forward. For many years it had been the policy of the Chinese Government to keep Northern Manchuria undeveloped. But in the "eighties" there were signs of a change of view. The northern frontier was fortified and some encouragement was given to immigrants to take up unoccupied land in the three provinces. They had poured in in large numbers for many years before; for example, in 1876 it was estimated that about 1,000,000 Shantung and Chihli peasants came into Manchuria.* But official encouragement no doubt acted as a stimulus; people continued to arrive, more land was brought into cultivation, and more grain produced. The immigrants who survived the hardships of travel and the first few struggling years inevitable to the pioneer, soon found that they were in a far richer land than that of their own provinces. The virgin soil gave forth abundantly; there was a great wealth of agricultural products to be disposed of; transport, though difficult and expensive, was not hampered by fiscal oppression; and, by a happy stroke of fortune, at the moment when there was superabundance of supply there arose in Japan a great demand for the staple productions. The discovery of the Japanese market for beans and bean-cake was the most potent economical factor in the development of trade in Southern Manchuria.

While the economic causes were sufficient in themselves to work great changes, much also must be credited to political developments. Among these are to be reckoned the two wars and subsequent Foreign occupations, which brought the country to the notice of the Western world, and the construction of railways, which introduced Foreign capital and gave good wages to a large amount of Native labour. The proximity of this port to the main line of the great Transsiberian-Manchurian railway, its inclusion in that vast system, and the new competitive factor introduced by the conversion of Talienwan into the great port of "Dalny," give it an entirely new commercial and political status: a future full of such vast possibilities, perhaps of failure, perhaps of success, is opened out to Newchwang that it is useless at this early date

* Newchwang Trade Report, 1876, p. 8.

to speculate upon it. The decade of which a record is now to be given will always be remarkable in the history of the port as coincident with strange changes in its fortunes. During the period this once disregarded portion of the earth became enmeshed in the great events which are working themselves out in Far Eastern Asia. Some account of these occurrences, so far as they affect the Treaty port, is given in the sketch which follows of the chief incidents during the decade.

(a.) EVENTS OF THE 10 YEARS.—1892 was a fairly prosperous year, without noteworthy events. The high trade values of 1891 were not quite maintained, but there was a distinct advance in the direct trade with Japan.

In 1893 a poor harvest was more than compensated for by the high prices obtained for produce. The trade with Japan again increased. During this year the Imperial Chinese railway passed into Manchuria from Shanhaikwan, the embankments having been constructed for a distance of 100 miles this side of the great wall.

The brilliant prospects of 1894 were marred by the war with Japan, the first effect of which was to cut off from the port what had by this time become its best and most promising market. The steady demand for bean products in South China, however, resulted in a very fair year's trade. The war did not, indeed, reach the neighbourhood of the port till towards the close of the year; but by the autumn the importance of this north-eastern corner of the Liaotung Gulf as the key to the entry by the Japanese armies into China proper began to be demonstrated. Two army corps, one approaching from the east, the other from the south, were gradually converging on the port. The First Army, under the chief command of Field-Marshal Count YAMAGATA, crossed the Yalu and passed into Manchuria on the 24th October. On the 26th Chiu-lien-ch'eng (九連城) fell. Fêng-huang-ch'eng (鳳凰城) was taken on the 30th October, and the Chinese General SUNG CH'ING (宋慶) retreated northwards towards Moukden. The two divisions, the 3rd and 5th, of which the First Army was composed, here separated, the 3rd division continuing the campaign westwards, while the 5th division carried on operations northwards, getting into touch with the Chinese troops at the difficult pass of Mo-t'ien-ling (摩天嶺). The 3rd division marched westwards on the 5th November. Ta-tung-kou (大東溝), Ta-ku-shan (大孤山), and Hsiu-yen (岫巖) were taken successively, the last-mentioned place on the 18th November. The First Army now stopped on the defensive until the Second Army, which had already landed, should be in a position to co-operate by marching northwards. Meanwhile a Civil Administration was established in the principal places occupied by the Japanese armies.

By a remarkable coincidence, the Second Army Corps began to disembark at Hua-yüan-k'ou (花園口), on the east coast of the Liaotung Peninsula, on the 24th October, the same day that the First Army Corps crossed the Yalu. The army, which was commanded-in-chief by Marshal Count OYAMA, Minister of War, at once pushed south, and achieved a rapid series of successes. Pi-tzu-wo (貔子窩), Chin-chou-t'ing (金州廳), and Talien Bay (大連灣) were all taken by the 7th November. On the 21st November the powerful fortress of Port Arthur fell, and that port was made the naval basis of operations. On the 1st December Marshal OYAMA's head-quarters were established at Chin-chou-t'ing.

Meanwhile the 5th division of the First Army was engaged in fighting the Tartar General I-KO-TANG-A (倭克唐阿), the Military Governor of Heilungchiang, who was making persistent attempts to recover Fêng-huang-ch'eng with his Amoor army. His final defeat, on the 14th December, closed the fighting in that part of Manchuria. On the 3rd December the 3rd division had moved forward to take Hai-ch'eng (海城), a strategical post of the first importance. By its capture, which was effected without loss on the 13th, the formidable position at the Mo-t'ien Pass was turned and the approach to Liaoyang rendered possible, while the Chinese armies at Moukden, Liaoyang, Hai-ch'eng, and Kai-chou were divided and could be beaten in detail, thus throwing open the road for the advance into China.

The seizure of Hai-ch'eng was made a month before the Second Army was able to move upon Kai-chou. Consequently, Lieutenant-General KATSURA, who was in command at Hai-ch'eng, found himself in an exposed situation. The Chinese made three attempts to recover the town. General SUNG advanced from Yingkow, and a severe battle was fought at Ma-chüan-tzu (馬圈子) and Kan-wang-chai (鰲王寨) on the 19th December. The Japanese were successful as usual, but their losses amounted to 9 per cent. of the numbers engaged. Further attempts, not of a very determined nature, were made to drive the Japanese from Hai-ch'eng on the 17th and 22nd January 1895.

On the 1st January 1895 the Second Army marched north from Chin-chou. On the 10th January Kai-chou was taken after some hard fighting, the Chinese showing a tactical skill in this engagement superior to anything of the kind displayed by them before. This acquisition had important strategical results, as by the possession of Kai-chou KATSURA's position at Hai-ch'eng was rendered safe, and communications could be established between the two armies, while the occupancy of the two towns gave the command over all the roads leading into China. The two armies now joined hands and in the later operations became the two wings of one army.

The Japanese army now halted for a time, during which the Chinese attacked its front, on the 16th February, and the new Chinese General, WU TA-CH'ENG (吳大澂), Governor of Hunan, who had by this time appeared on the scene, made a final and fruitless assault on Hai-ch'eng on the 21st February.

Towards the end of February the Japanese again prepared to take the offensive. One fortnight served to crush the Chinese forces and end the campaign. The first blow was struck at Ta-p'ing-shan (太平山), on the 24th February, in the neighbourhood of which place the Chinese fought with some tenacity. The Liaoyang army was defeated on the 28th February and the 1st March. On the 4th March "old Newchwang" was attacked and taken after the most desperate defence. This loss obliged General SUNG to evacuate Yingkow on the 5th and retire to T'ien-chuang-t'ai. On the 6th March the Japanese troops entered this port and occupied it; the Chinese, with the exception of the troops in the forts at the mouth of the river (who retreated by night over the frozen stream), having, as stated, fallen back the previous day upon T'ien-chuang-t'ai.

The arrival of the Japanese troops was a surprise to most of the residents here, it being an article of general belief that the Treaty port would be unmolested. On the 4th

March a mysterious message from the Japanese General had reached an English missionary that the Japanese were reluctantly compelled to approach Yingkow against their original intention, as the fact that General SUNG continued to make the place his head-quarters menaced the Japanese communications. But many residents doubted the authenticity of a missive sent in such a peculiar way, and, even assuming its genuineness, felt that when General SUNG moved away the only reason given by the Japanese General in his letter for the occupation of this place fell to the ground. This reasoning proved erroneous however. The Japanese arrived in due course; and from what we know now of their position at the time, it does not seem that the occupation could have been avoided. As was shown again six years later on, the possession of the port was strategically necessary to an army marching upon Moukden from Port Arthur.

After the occupation of Yingkow the two wings of the Japanese army united and marched on T'ien-chuang-t'ai, where the last action of the war terminated, on the 9th March, in an overwhelming defeat of the Chinese.

These proceedings, following upon the naval successes at Weihaiwei, closed the war. China lay at the feet of Japan. The Chinese army at Liaoyang was cut off from China proper; the other Chinese troops were destroyed; and the door was open to Japan to advance either by land or sea upon Shanhaikwan and Peking.

The results of this war are among the great historical events of the Far East. By the Treaty of Shimonoseki, signed on the 17th April 1895, the Liaotung Peninsula and a considerable portion of territory at its base, including this port and extending eastwards from it to the Yalu, were ceded to Japan. But six months later, under well-known circumstances, the whole was given back to China by the Retrocession Convention signed at Peking on the 8th November 1895.

During the winter 1894-95 the little Foreign community at Yingkow was in a somewhat jeopardous position. The season was exceptionally severe. On the 30th November 1894 dangerous ice appeared in the river, and the last vessel of the year left port. From that date the handful of European and American residents was cut off from the outer world; a war was raging in the immediate vicinity; and large bodies of Chinese troops, even in peaceful times not credited with pro-Foreign sentiments, were constantly passing through the town and were quartered in it for long intervals. For the protection of the Foreign community, two gun-boats arrived before the river closed; they were dry-docked and wintered in the port. The vessels were the U.S.S. *Petrel*, Lieutenant-Commander EMORY, and H.B.M.S. *Firebrand*, Lieutenant-Commander TUFNELL. Whether the moral effect of these two small ships was sufficient or whether, as some think, General SUNG kept his soldiers under very strict discipline, the fact remains that Foreigners were unmolested and passed a safe though anxious winter. The departure of the Chinese soldiers from the town before the Japanese entered no doubt saved the western residents from a disagreeable experience; for had Yingkow been seriously defended, the predicament for Foreigners, especially with so many women and children to care for, would have been very grave indeed.

After the entry of the Japanese, on the 6th March, they established a Civil Administration of their own, and this Custom House temporarily ceased its functions. The trade during

1895 is not accurately known, as precise statistics were not kept; but it was, from the nature of things, a poor year. On the 24th November the Japanese Custom House was closed; on the 30th the Japanese forces evacuated the town and the Chinese officials resumed their offices.

1896 was not merely a year of recuperation, it was also a year of great commercial activity. The war had not touched the trade centres of Manchuria or the chief fields of production, and the tide of commerce came back with a rush. During the year a bean mill, with Foreign machinery, was set up in the town. The Shanhaikwan railway was pushed eastwards somewhat, and the first whisper was heard of the proposed construction of a railway across Manchuria under Russian auspices. It was reported that a Russo-Chinese Agreement had been concluded, by which the Transbaikal and Southern Ussuri sections of the Siberian railway were to be connected by a line running through the provinces of Heilungchiang and Kirin.

Large as had been the volume of trade in the previous year, 1897 showed a still greater growth; more particularly, the exports to Japan increased in an extraordinary way. On the 11th May the Russo-Chinese Bank opened an agency in the port, and on the 28th August the first sod of the Manchurian railway was cut, with much ceremony, on the eastern frontier of Kirin, as a preliminary to the connexion of the two above-mentioned sections of the Siberian railway.

By the Agreement between Russia and China, dated the 27th March 1898, Port Arthur and Talienwan were leased to Russia, and the construction by that country of a line extending through Chinese territory to those places, to be called the Chinese Eastern Railway, was authorised. The territory leased to Russia reached northwards to a line drawn across the Liaotung Peninsula between Pu-la-tien (蒲拉甸) (Port Adams) on the west and Pi-tzi-wo (貔子窩) on the east. This port (Yingkow)—or rather the Russian Settlement at Niu-chia-t'un (牛家屯), 3 miles from it, whence a branch line 13 miles in length was to run to the main line meeting it at the junction of Ta-shih-ch'iao (大石橋)—was selected as a convenient point for beginning the southern section of the new line and bringing in the necessary material. An account of the Russian Railway Settlement and of the proceedings at the start is given in the Trade Report for 1898. During the autumn and winter of that year the building of the line was prosecuted with energy, and in May 1899 the branch line to Ta-shih-ch'iao was opened. During 1898 the British and Japanese Governments acquired sites for Settlements on the north bank of the river, no doubt with a view to meeting any developments which might arise from the establishment of the terminus of the Shanhaikwan railway on that shore. During the year the rails on this line were laid as far as Chin-chou-fu (錦州府), and the earthworks from the latter place to this port were practically completed. The year again witnessed a marvellous growth of trade, the net value of which exceeded $\text{£} 32,000,000$, or about three and a half times the value of 10 years before. A second steam bean mill was erected.

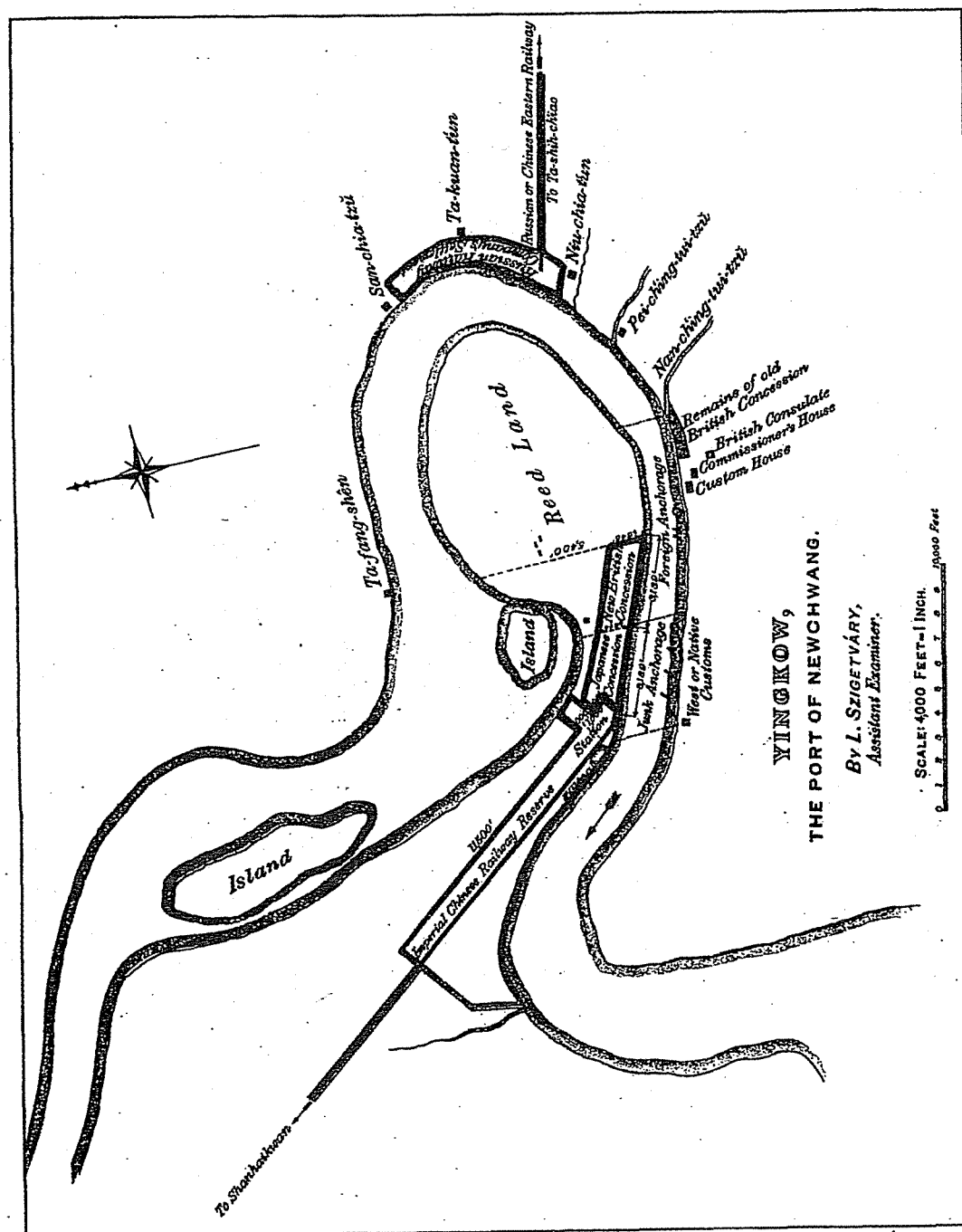
In 1899 the total value of trade recorded during the previous year, great as it had been, was entirely eclipsed. The extraordinary expansion in value of nearly 50 per cent. over the 1898 figures was achieved, the gross total reached being nearly $\text{£} 50,000,000$. Railway connexion between this port and Port Arthur *via* Ta-shih-ch'iao was effected; the

Russian railway was completed northwards as far as Moukden; and the Imperial Chinese railway from Tientsin to Yingkow was sufficiently finished to allow the through passage of construction trains. The year had the melancholy prominence, in spite of its wonderful commercial prosperity, of being that in which bubonic plague reached the port. An international Sanitary Commission was formed to cope with it. Funds were subscribed by the Chinese Government and the Russian Railway Administration as well as by Foreign and Chinese residents. A large staff of Japanese doctors was engaged for the work. The effort was remarkable as the first attempt to deal scientifically with a pestilence in a Chinese town.

1900 was the year of upheaval in North China, and Newchwang came in for its share of trouble. The year opened with great promise, and it was not until the early days of June that any whisper of the coming storm reached the ears of Foreigners at this port. But by that time the elements of trouble had already been some time in our midst. Towards the end of March, directly, in fact, the port had opened, eight apostles of the Boxer propaganda, natives of Shantung and Tientsin, had arrived here from Chefoo. They took up their quarters in the south-western part of the town, a district inhabited by the least reputable portion of the population, and speedily found a following of a few young boys, who were duly initiated into the mysteries and privileges of Boxerdom. After a stay of two or three weeks the eight emissaries proceeded inland, gathering converts as they went. After their departure the little band of adherents steadily increased. In May the apprentices in the shops became infected; and by June the Boxer following was not confined to lads but embraced a number of Tientsin junk and river-boat men as well as the bulk of the *wu-lai-tzu*, the unemployed or loafers, to be found here as in every Chinese town. The respectable Chinese kept, so far as can be ascertained, absolutely aloof. The total Boxer fraternity in Yingkow probably never numbered 1,000 souls, and of these a large proportion were children. The power of the movement here is not to be attributed to its actual numbers, strength, or general popularity but to the superstitious dread it excited among all classes of the population.

By the middle of June bands of Boxers daily patrolled the streets. Their first overt act of hostility was to post up an anti-Foreign placard on the Lao-yeh Ko (老爺閣), a temple in the middle of the town. This brought forth a protest from the Foreign Consuls and excited much alarm among the Chinese. The Taotai sent soldiers to tear the placards down and issued a proclamation denouncing the Boxers and ordering the arrest of persons creating disturbances and posting placards. Unfortunately, however, no arrests were made. Outside of striking the necessary hard blow at once, the Taotai went to the greatest possible pains to ensure that there should be no rioting and destruction of property. The streets were regularly patrolled by Chinese soldiers, the Taotai himself being out early and late on horseback to see that his men were at their posts. Foreigners reaped the reward of his exertions, as from beginning to end of the troubles no mission or other Foreign property in the town was injured.

Meanwhile news from the outer world filtered in slowly, telegraphic communication having been severed on the 15th June. But such information as came from Peking and Tientsin showed the gravity of the crisis and warned us that it was necessary for the



community here to look to its own defence. On the 14th June Foreign refugees from the missions, railways, and mines in the interior began to pour in. On the 16th the Russian gun-boat *Otvajny*, which had been lying for some weeks off the Russian Railway Settlement, moved down to a position opposite the Custom House. The British community made strong appeals for a British gun-boat, both at the outbreak and repeatedly during the troubles. But, except for a flying visit of the torpedo-boat destroyer *Fame* on the 14th July, no British ship arrived until the 9th August, when the troubles were over. The news of the bombardment of the Taku Forts on the 17th June reached here on the 20th. The fighting strength of the community having been considerably reinforced by the railway engineers and other refugees, a volunteer corps was formed on the 21st June. Three companies were made up—one consisting of the general community, one of the Japanese residents, and one of the Customs staff, which included some 50 Chinese who had been drilled in the old institution here known as the Customs Guard. As a proof of the Chinese feeling here it may be remarked that these Chinese, with some trifling exceptions, were true to their salt. Soon after, most of the Japanese left the port, and the community volunteers were amalgamated in one company with the Customs. Regular day and night guards and patrols by the volunteers were arranged in conjunction with the sailors from the gun-boat.

On the 25th June, after much alarm and distress caused by a false alarm on the 23rd that the Boxers were about to attack, most of the Foreign women and children left the port. On the 30th news arrived of the destruction of the Protestant missionary property at Moukden, which was followed by the demolition of the Roman Catholic mission there on the 2nd July, the Bishop and other missionaries perishing with their flock. From this time Manchuria was in a blaze. Foreign property was everywhere destroyed, reports coming in daily of the destruction of missions, mines, and railways. During this period the position of the Foreign community here was a perilous one. The anti-Foreign element among the high Moukden officials was predominant. Open war against the Foreigner was the order of the day, and there can be no question that had the Taotai MING PAO observed the wishes or even, as they might naturally be understood by him, the definite orders of his superiors, he would have let loose the Boxer rabble and his force of soldiers against the little band of Foreigners. The Boxers in the town were clamorously awaiting their opportunity: divided between the prospects of loot and Foreign blood on the one hand and doubts as to how the gun-boat and Foreign rifles would receive an attack on the other, they employed the interval in parading the town, bullying the helpless townsfolk, and uttering dire threats of their intentions towards the Foreigners. The Taotai constantly sent in warnings to us to be on the alert, as an attack was imminent. Should the mob once get the upper hand, there was only too much reason to fear that the Taotai's and HU T'ung-ling's troops—perhaps 1,000 men in all,—perfectly as they had behaved hitherto, would be unable to resist the prospects of spoil. The Russian line north of Ta-shih-ch'iao had to be abandoned; the guards fell back to that place, whence it was possible to maintain communications with Port Arthur. The Russian railway guard was numerically weak; the long line to Port Arthur had to be guarded; and, owing to the diversion of all available forces to Tientsin, reinforcements were slow in arriving. If the small garrison at Ta-shih-ch'iao, only 16 miles from here, had been

obliged to fall back before the Chinese army, which, as it transpired later, was advancing from Moukden upon the port, we should, like Tientsin, have been subjected to military attack.

On the 5th July news arrived from Hsiu-yen (鮎嶺), a small town in the south-east of the province, that a party of Danish missionaries was besieged there by Boxers. Captain ALEXANDROVSKY, of the Russian army, immediately started, with 24 Russian and 6 English volunteers, to their relief. It was a plucky but perilous expedition into, so far as was known, a disturbed country. Fortunately, the road traversed was quiet and the party returned safely on the 11th. The mission house was found deserted, the missionaries having escaped towards Port Arthur, which they ultimately reached in safety.

On the 7th July the Taotai sent in a special warning that troops were ordered from Moukden to attack the port. The guilds and Chinese merchants were as much concerned at this news as the Foreigners, and a deputation, headed by the *hai-fang-ting* and representatives of the guilds, was sent by the Taotai to meet the troops and, if possible, persuade them to stop. They were met north of Newchwang proper; and whether the deputation's arguments were effective, or whether the prospect of having to encounter the Russian forces was more deterrent, the fact remains that they advanced no further.

The doubt as to the movements of these troops caused the community to adopt further defensive measures. All the roads commanding the approaches to the Foreign quarter were barricaded and a breastwork was thrown up round the Custom House, which was to be the final resort if it was found impossible to hold the barricades.

After it appeared that the Chinese forces would not advance, and that thus a military attack in great strength would not be made upon the port, matters became easier. The naval force was augmented by the arrival of two more Russian and two small Japanese gun-boats. With this additional protection, with the strengthening of the Russian forces at Ta-shih-chiao and the Railway Settlement here, and the fact that the Taotai continued to keep order in the town, it seemed that the port might pull through without fighting after all. The later occurrences, culminating in the Russian occupation, may be quoted from an official report by Mr. FULFORD, British Consul: " . . . Great excitement was caused among the Natives on the 26th July by a move of the Russian military commander of the troops stationed at the Russian railway station. . . . On that morning Colonel MISCHENKOFF† moved down some 400 or 500 men from the railway and attacked a stockade of the Taotai's troops situated close to the mud wall surrounding this town. The Chinese fled into the city, and a brisk fire was exchanged between the Russians and the Chinese on the mud wall, in the course of which Russian field-guns were freely used. This proceeding created a panic among the Natives and made the Taotai despair of keeping order. The Russian Consul disclaimed any foreknowledge of the military action, and suggested to his colleagues that the military commander should be asked to help in the work of guarding the Foreign quarter from an attack which was now probable. Military guards were then added to our other defences.

"On the 28th July the Russian Consul, hearing a rumour that a Russian captive was held in the Native city, wrote to the Taotai that he must be given up immediately, or if anything

* Blue Book, China, No. 1 (1901), p. 191.

† *Sic*; the name is MISCHENKO.

happened to him the city would be bombarded. The rumour was false, but the threat gave rise to the greatest alarm on the part of the Natives.

"Finally, a mob attacked one of the barricades guarding the Foreign quarter on the morning of the 4th instant (August). The attack was easily beaten off, but the Taotai and his staff now fled the town, and a desultory fire was kept up all the morning between the Russian troops, of whom large numbers came from their railway station, and Chinese, who were hidden behind mud walls in the distance. They were mostly Boxers, but some of the soldiers may have joined them.

"At 3 P.M. the *Gremiastchy* steamed down to the mouth of the river below the town, and both Russian gun-boats opened fire upon the city, and continued till 7 P.M. The Chinese soldiers and mob soon ran away from the town, and many escaped to the south. The bombardment was largely directed against them, and the town was not much injured. The Russian General consented to refrain from further bombardment if the town were surrendered and all arms given up. A party of volunteers went into the town in the evening with this message, and came back accompanied by several of the heads of guilds and leading men. This arrangement was carried out next day.

"The Russian flag was hoisted on the evening of the 4th instant on the Chinese Customs flag-post."

The apparent strangeness of the above proceedings, which provoked much criticism at the time, may perhaps be explained by the military reasons that the Russian line, which, it must be remembered, had been actively attacked along its length by Chinese, was not considered safe while a Chinese garrison, even if to all appearance friendly, was quartered here; and that the Russian army was advancing northwards to meet the Chinese army and could not afford to leave a hostile force unprovided for on its flank. In fact, the history of the Japanese war repeated itself, and this port was considered strategically necessary to the Russian communications.

The two Japanese gun-boats which were in port at the time took no part in the bombardment. It also appears that in the attack on the stockade on the 26th July the Boxers joined hands with the Chinese soldiers, that being practically their first exhibition of anything beyond verbal hostilities. After that event they adopted the yellow cap, red sash, and sword which, with various cabalistic charms, are the uniform of the order. On the 25th July—the day before the Russian attack on the stockade—three Boxer leaders went to the Taotai's *yamên* and demanded to be registered, hoping thereby to gain official recognition and standing as a regular force. The Taotai first threatened to behead all three, but finally contented himself with sending them out of the place. The Boxers made their head-quarters in the Great West Temple (西大廟), behind what is now the West Customs. On the 3rd August they were worked up to a pitch of fury by a proposed salute of 31 guns by the Russian war-ships on the next day—a national festival,—believing, or professing to believe, that it was only a pretext to cover the bombardment of the town. The Taotai's first knowledge of the attack on the 4th August was when he heard the sound of firing. The Boxers besieged him in his *yamên*, with the intention most probably of keeping him here and forcing him to lead them against the Foreigners. But in the afternoon he managed to cross the river to the railway station on the

north bank, the Boxers following in boats and trying to prevent his entering the train. In the scuffle one of the Taotai's followers, a petty military officer, was killed. The Taotai then ordered his soldiers to fire into the mob. He escaped in the train to T'ien-chuang-t'ai and thence on to the neighbourhood of Chin-chou-fu.

On the 6th August Admiral ALEXEIEFF, Commander-in-Chief of the Russian military and naval forces in the Liaotung district, arrived at Newchwang. The proclamation explaining the circumstances under which the port came to be occupied and the rules of the Provisional Administration were then issued; these appear in Appendices Nos. 1 and 2. An arrangement was concluded with the Admiral under which this Custom House continued its work of collecting the Foreign revenue.

By the 1st October the Russian army marching northwards was in occupation of Moukden, and about the same time the army from the north reached T'ieh-ling (鐵嶺). The junction of the two armies being effected, the communications down the line from Harbin to Port Arthur were restored and the war in Manchuria virtually over, such further fighting as occurred being of a guerrilla nature. Trade was finished for the year; some efforts to revive commerce in the port were made towards the close of the season; but during the winter such activity as was manifested in Manchuria displayed itself in the depredations of the bandit and the efforts to suppress him.

The two railways did not suffer so much from the disturbances as might have been expected. When the troubles broke out, a daily train was running between Shanhaikwan and this port. After the railway was abandoned by the Foreign engineers, in the middle of June, the Chinese operatives continued running trains and, as told above, the Taotai escaped by the line on the 4th August. He seems to have destroyed part of the Shuang-t'ai-tzu (雙台子) bridge and torn up some portion of the rails after he had passed. This appears to have been the only damage done to the permanent way by the beginning of October, when the Russians took possession of the line. The Russian line suffered more. When the troubles began, trains from Port Arthur ran to T'ieh-ling. The line thus far was sufficiently repaired by September to allow the advance of the southern army.

The West, or Junk, Customs were opened under the Russian Provisional Administration on the 12th August. The staff was mainly lent by this office, whose rules, system, and tariff were followed as far as possible.

The great event of the year 1901 was the completion of the Transiberian-Manchurian railway. In the early part of November connexion between the various sections was achieved. The Shanhaikwan railway was repaired with great rapidity by the Russian engineers. The Yingkow terminus grew into a little town of workshops, dwellings, etc., and in the spring the whole line from Shanhaikwan to Yingkow, with the exception of two or three bridges, was in working order again. From a trade standpoint the year was a good one, being very little behind 1899. The railways were employed to a considerable extent in the carriage of goods to and from the port. The plague appeared again during the summer, but, being stringently dealt with by the authorities, never assumed serious dimensions. The statistics of this year's trade were especially interesting, as they contained for the first time full details

of the junk trade. They showed that a trade worth 16½ million taels was carried in Native vessels during the year, the wares conveyed being almost entirely of Chinese origin. The year was remarkable for the number of new Foreign buildings erected, the new Foreign stores opened, and the increase in the resident Foreign population in the port—quite a metamorphosis being effected in these respects. Three Foreign war-vessels wintered in the port, being docked on the river bank between Yingkow and the Russian Railway Settlement; they were the Russian gun-boat *Bobr*, the United States gun-boat *Vicksburg*, and the British sloop *Algerine*.

(b.) CHANGES IN TRADE.—FOREIGN TRADE.—Imports.—From what has been written above it will appear that it is in the direct trade with Foreign countries that we must look for important changes during the decade. In fact, the direct trade practically came into existence during the period, as we may date its birth from the time of the Japanese war. In 1891 Imports directly from Foreign countries were only valued at *Hk.Tta* 379,209. The value grew gradually until 1896, the year of recovery after the war, when it rose suddenly to *Hk.Tta* 1,886,485, this total, however, really representing two years trade. In 1899 the enormous total of *Hk.Tta* 5,279,185 was reached, of which the greater portion was claimed by Hongkong, Japan, and the United States of America, the last country supplying a quantity of Railway Material. In 1901 the figures were *Hk.Tta* 4,293,737. The principal articles coming here direct were Japanese Piece Goods of all sorts, Indian and Japanese Cotton Yarn, Metals, Gunny and Hemp Bags, Coal, American Flour, Japan and European Matches, Seaweed, Sugar, and Tobacco.

Exports.—The Native productions going directly to Foreign countries show the same remarkable development. Their value, which was only *Hk.Tta* 460,946 in 1891, grew to *Hk.Tta* 8,691,236 in 1899 and *Hk.Tta* 7,303,086 in 1901. Japan took 90 per cent. of this trade. Bean products accounted for about 90 per cent. of the total, other items of importance being Castor Oil, Sesamum Seed, and Wild Raw Silk. The reasons for the great demand for Bean products in Japan are given in the Trade Report for 1899.

COAST TRADE.—Original Shipments Coastwise.—The better market for Bean products offered by Japan no doubt retarded the growth of the Export trade to South China, which did not show any great development during the decade. The value of these shipments in 1891 was *Hk.Tta* 7,608,800; in 1899, *Hk.Tta* 11,924,515; and in 1901, *Hk.Tta* 11,439,134. The growth, however, was rather in value than in bulk. A reference to Appendix No. 7 will show how the average value of the Bean products rose during the decade. In fact, the local price was almost doubled during the period. The Bean products again formed the bulk of this trade, but Medicines, Dried Prawns and Shrimps, Samshu, Sesamum Seed, Wild Raw Silk, and Skins were also valuable articles of export. Among the articles carried by junk to Chinese ports must be noted the large quantity of grain of various kinds.

Coastwise Arrivals.—The Foreign goods arriving coastwise in 1891 were valued at *Hk.Tta* 5,692,203; in 1899, at *Hk.Tta* 16,566,413; and in 1901, at *Hk.Tta* 12,854,552. This branch of trade therefore has also shared in the progress observable at this port. The Native goods coming coastwise in 1891 were valued at *Hk.Tta* 2,816,951; in 1899, at *Hk.Tta* 5,976,674; and in 1901, at *Hk.Tta* 6,475,171. When to these figures we add the large quantity of Native

commodities coming in by junk—actually exceeding the steamer-borne wares in value,—we realise that Manchuria is not only a valuable market for Foreign goods, but also for a large variety of articles from China proper.

INLAND TRANSIT.—This trade is very inconsiderable; few Transit Passes were taken out during the decade, inland taxation being very light in these provinces.

After these brief notes upon the growth of trade here under its various branches, we may turn to a general consideration of the astonishing way in which Newchwang commerce has leaped forward of recent years. An attempt to show the progress of the port has been made in Appendix No. 3, where a comparative table of the average annual results of three decades is given. From this table we gather that in 20 years the Foreign-type tonnage employed has nearly trebled, the value of Foreign goods imported has quadrupled, the value of Native goods imported has trebled, the value of Exports more than quadrupled, while the direct Foreign trade is 16 times what it was, and the total value of trade has increased fourfold. This is the result of a comparison of the average annual results of decades. Were the first and last years of the 20 years taken, the results would be much more striking, as the boom only commenced in earnest during the last years of the last decade. As an instance of this, we may remark that the total net value of the trade only exceeded *Hk.Tta* 10,000,000 in one year before 1889; that *Hk.Tta* 17,000,000 were reached in 1891 and 1893; and that from 1896 on the figures rapidly rose until they exceeded *Hk.Tta* 48,000,000 in 1899 and *Hk.Tta* 42,000,000 in 1901. A reference to the comparative 10 years tables of Imports and Exports published with the annual Returns for 1901 will show that the items did not vary much during the decade, but that there was, generally speaking, a large increase in bulk. As regards Cotton Goods, Appendix No. 4 to this Report gives a picture of the international competition in Drills, Sheetings, and Jeans. 20 years ago English Drills were in favour, and the importations grew steadily until 1890, in which year over 90,000 pieces arrived. This, however, was the zenith; from that time decline began, and the demand for these Drills gradually fell off, until in 1901 only 580 pieces were imported. With American Drills there is no such sorrowful story to tell. The consumption of these was large even in 1882, and in 1891 over 220,000 pieces came here. For a few years the figures dropped, but revived in 1896, when 246,993 pieces passed the Customs. From that year the figures grew with astonishing rapidity, until 584,877 pieces in 1899 and 546,498 pieces in 1901 were recorded. The Indian, Japanese, Dutch, and Chinese Drills come only in small quantities, and it is evident that the American product has quite won the market. The same remark applies to Sheetings. In 1893 over 70,000 pieces of English Sheetings were required in Manchuria; in 1901 the importation was only 3,210 pieces. American Sheetings, on the other hand, though arriving in great quantity for the last 20 years, made, like Drills, a great start forward in 1896, when 376,105 pieces arrived. The growth from then on was amazing. In 1899 over 1,000,000 pieces, and in 1901 980,000 pieces, were imported. Indian Sheetings are a new development during the decade, but the figures, though not inconsiderable, showed no signs of unusual development. The same may be said of Chinese Sheetings. The importations of the Japanese and Dutch varieties were small. In Jeans the English product maintained its position during the decade. American Jeans were in little demand until 1899, when 29,630 pieces arrived, figures which were quite eclipsed by the

52,473 pieces recorded in 1901. It would appear that in this article again has America quite ousted her rivals. Appendix No. 5 gives a comparative table of Cotton Yarn imported during the period. English Yarn went out of favour, only 291 piculs arriving in 1901. Indian Yarn, on the other hand, increased steadily, the highest figures being recorded in 1899, 210,363 piculs. Japanese and Chinese Yarn were also in very fair demand, the importations in 1899 being 42,433 and 14,547 piculs respectively. Among the other importations which increased greatly during the period under review Matches, American and Russian Kerosene Oil, Russian Seaweed, and various kinds of Sugar may be noted. The details of the changes among the many items, Chinese and Foreign, included in our Import list have been commented upon from year to year, and it is unnecessary to dwell further upon them here. Turning to Exports, Appendix No. 6 is a comparative table showing the exportations of Bean products during the past three decades. Comparing the annual average of each decade, we find evidence of a large increase in production, showing how the demand in Japan stimulated supply, though it must be remembered that the table is imperfect as a record of output, as it does not include the junk statistics, which were available for the first time only in 1901. As regards steamer figures, however, it appears, taking average figures, that nearly three times as much Beancake went away in the last decade as in the first; about seven times as much Bean Oil; and more than twice the quantity of Beans. Bean products constitute about 80 per cent. of our total Exports; so the above figures explain much of Newchwang's recent prosperity. Among other Exports it may be observed that the trade in Bristles was about stationary; that Dried and Salt Fish are a growing item; and that Native Ginseng showed a healthy development during the decade. Ground-nuts appeared first in our tables in 1897. The value of Native Medicines exported increased largely, from *Hk.Tta* 67,623 in 1892 to *Hk.Tta* 165,067 in 1901. Castor Oil is a valuable and growing commodity, as are also Melon and Sesamum Seeds. The exportations of Wild Raw Silk showed a steady increase until the last two years of the decennary. The trade in Skins fluctuated considerably, but, on an average, it did not change a great deal, except that the exportation of Raw Goat Skins at the end of the decade was only one-fifth of what it was at the beginning.

SHIPPING.—At the beginning of the decennary about 600,000 tons represented the shipping entering and clearing at the port; at the end the figures were, approximately, 1,000,000 tons. A feature of the period is the way sailing ships quite died out of this trade. As regards the distribution of the carrying trade among the various flags, Japan achieved a remarkable result during the decade. Appendix No. 9 gives some interesting figures in this regard. Up to 1897 Great Britain owned half the tonnage; but in the last year of the decennary her percentage of the whole was only 41.80. Japan's per-centage, however, rose from 6.65 in 1892 to 42.95 in 1901.

(c) **REVENUE.**—Appendix No. 3 shows that in the decade 1872-81 the average annual Revenue was *Hk.Tta* 264,344, *Hk.Tta* 371,918 in 1882-91, and *Hk.Tta* 609,837 in the decade under review. The year 1895 is omitted in this calculation, as the Customs were collected by the Japanese in that year. The highest point reached was in 1899, when over *Hk.Tta* 900,000 were taken. The greatest increases come under the Import and Export Duty headings, more particularly the former, which in 1891 was only *Hk.Tta* 27,180, and grew to *Hk.Tta* 122,982

in 1899 and *Hk.Ta* 116,704 in 1901. Tonnage Dues also increased very largely; but Opium Duties, on the whole, declined, an exception being in the year 1899, when the failure of the Manchurian crops of Native Opium caused a quantity of Foreign Opium to be imported. A comparative table showing the details of the Revenue collected by this Custom House during the 10 years 1892-1901 is to be found among the statistics published with the Trade Report for 1901.

(d.) OPIUM.—The importation of Foreign Opium decreased during the decade until, in 1897, it was less than 28 piculs, and the item was expected to disappear altogether from our Returns; when, owing to two consecutive bad crops of Native Opium, Foreign Opium suddenly sprung again into prominence, nearly 1,000 piculs being imported in 1899, besides over 300 piculs of Native Opium, this being the largest importation recorded since 1880. But no doubt Foreign Opium is doomed in these northern provinces, being ordinarily only used by the southern Chinese. The only time Foreign Opium is likely to be needed here or go up in price will be after several consecutive bad harvests, as an ordinary harvest produces ample for local consumption, leaving even a surplus to make up for any deficiency of a poor year and for export to other provinces. A great deal of Native Opium reaches the port without paying the legal dues, for it is estimated that at least 1,000 piculs per annum are consumed locally in the port and the adjoining districts it supplies, without counting what is exported or smuggled out, but only 736 piculs passed during 1901 through the Native Customs, which now collects the taxes on Native Opium.

During the latter part of 1899 and early part of 1900 the price of Native Opium rose to *Ta* 670 to *Ta* 680 per picul, being about the same as the price of Foreign Opium at the time; but 1900 and 1901 producing excellent Opium crops, the price fell fully 30 per cent., the price at the end of 1901 being *Ta* 440 to *Ta* 450 per picul, against *Ta* 610 to *Ta* 620 for Foreign Opium.

(e.) EXCHANGE AND BANKING.—The nominal currency of Manchuria is cash. The cash system of Fengtien is a peculiar one. A *tiao*, consisting of 160 copper cash, being nominally counted as 1,000 cash (*hsiao-ch'ien*, 小錢). In Kirin the *chung-ch'ien* (中錢) system is used, i.e., a *tiao* consists of 500 copper cash.

All prices, wages, etc., are quoted in *tiao*, though cash are so scarce that in some districts paper notes—which can only be used in the district they are issued—of even such small values as 100 cash, i.e., one-tenth *tiao* = 16 copper cash, and, in others, only spurious cash, are in circulation. As sycee will not be accepted in the interior unless recast into standard shoes of the locality where it is used, the charge for recasting, etc., causing a loss, the dollar and subsidiary coins, owing to their more defined values, grew popular throughout Manchuria, and are now freely used in lieu of cash at local rates, whereas in former days they were only used by Foreigners and the shipping people in the port.

During the past few years large quantities of dollars and small coin have been imported (over *Hk.Ta* 14,000,000 worth during the last four years). They were also coined at the Mints of Kirin and Moukden—though the latter are very little used outside of Moukden, as, owing to the fixed value of *Ta* 0.743, they could only be used elsewhere at a loss, so that the scarcity of cash is now not so keenly felt and exchange has slightly risen.

The Mexican dollar is considered the standard; though other kinds are ordinarily accepted at face value, yet larger quantities of Chinese, new Mexican, and small coin are only accepted at a discount varying from 1 to 5 per cent. Since the Russian occupation and the establishment of branch offices of the Russo-Chinese Bank in the interior, roubles are also freely used all along the railway line, being at present at a premium of over 8 per cent.

Sterling exchange at this port is based on the Shanghai quotations, the Newchwang tael being, on an average, at a premium of 4 to 5 per cent. on Shanghai.

The table of the average rates of exchange between the *tiao*, Newchwang tael, and Haikwan tael (Appendix No. 8) has been compiled from the records of this office.

Considering that the prices of our principal staples of produce, as well as the ordinary necessities of life, have risen to about double and more than what they were in 1892, the purchasing power of the Haikwan tael appears to have declined considerably in silver transactions, and, as will be seen by the exchange table, more so when payment is calculated in *tiao*. It may be argued that prices are not a fair comparison to judge by, being more or less influenced by demand and supply, growing population, etc.; but it cannot be denied that the fall of silver must affect local prices, wages, etc., for the buyer of Foreign goods must charge more for his local produce to enable him to pay the advanced prices of his purchases, and thus make the buyer of his goods bear a share of his extra expense. So also must the labourer demand a higher wage to enable him to pay the higher prices of his daily necessities.

(f.) VALUES.—The following table gives the values of Imports and Exports at moment of landing and shipment respectively for the period 1892-1901:—

YEAR.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.	EXCESS.	EXCESS TREASURE.
	<i>Hk.Ta</i>	<i>Hk.Ta</i>	<i>Hk.Ta</i>	<i>Hk.Ta</i>
1892.....	6,670,929	10,288,569	- 3,617,640	+ 329,291
1893.....	7,619,554	10,477,302	- 2,857,748	+ 385,806
1894.....	7,203,581	9,658,969	- 2,455,388	- 176,673
1895.....
1896.....	10,482,458	12,638,437	- 2,155,979	+ 168,774
1897.....	11,457,418	15,414,249	- 3,956,831	+ 1,420,706
1898.....	13,712,463	19,416,429	- 5,703,966	+ 4,895,583
1899.....	25,306,637	22,952,023	+ 2,354,614	+ 5,014,346
1900.....	9,638,545	12,815,772	- 3,177,227	+ 1,913,411
1901.....	21,542,053	20,820,827	+ 721,226	+ 1,299,682

+ = Import; - = Export.

With the exception of 1899 and 1901, the values of Exports always exceeded those of Imports. Leaving out 1895, the year of the Japanese occupation, the net excess of Exports

over Imports during the decennary (1892-1901) amounted to *Hk.Tls.* 20,848,939; though, as will be seen by the following, Imports are gradually gaining ground:—

Exports exceeded Imports in value—

in 1881 by over 80 per cent. (total value of trade—Imports and Exports—being *Hk.Tls.* 6,333,909);

in 1891 by over 12 per cent. (total value of trade—Imports and Exports—being *Hk.Tls.* 17,409,164).

Imports exceeded Exports in value—

in 1899 by over 9 per cent. (total value of trade—Imports and Exports—being *Hk.Tls.* 48,258,660);

The excess of Import values being principally accounted for by Railway Material, which was imported to the value of *Hk.Tls.* 3,000,000, these goods, though no doubt eventually paid for by Exports, can scarcely be called merchandise in the ordinary sense.

in 1901 by over 3 per cent. (total value of trade—Imports and Exports—being *Hk.Tls.* 42,362,880).

The excess of Exports is not counterbalanced by excess of Treasure imported. The Chinese firms, through whose hands nearly the whole trade of this port passes, being all southern merchants, probably the surplus money is passed into their accounts in the south.

The excess of Treasure imported seems to cover only the money necessary for circulation, for it has increased steadily with the growing population—the greatest excess being in 1898 and 1899, when, with the advent of the railways, tens of thousands of labourers poured in, necessitating a great amount of money for circulation in payment of wages, etc.

(g.) POPULATION.—No data exist upon which a reliable estimate of the population of the three Manchurian provinces may be based. Computations have been made from time to time in which the population is stated at anything between 10,000,000 and 25,000,000. Mr. HOSIE, in his "Manchuria," puts it down at 17,000,000. The figures no doubt are largely guesswork; but whatever they may actually be, there can be no question that they have increased rapidly of recent years. Immigration from Shantung and Chihli has gone on for a number of years, and has been accelerated lately by the labour offering on the railways. Comparatively large wages can be obtained by coolies working on the lines, and many of them after working a year or so, to accumulate a little ready money, settle permanently in the country, their families following them as opportunity permits. What proportion of the original Manchus remains among the population is a debated point; but all authorities agree that the Chinese greatly preponderate, the Manchus forming perhaps not more than from 10 to 20 per cent. of the whole population. As regards the Foreign inhabitants of the port, their number increased greatly during the decade. In 1892 there were 5 Foreign firms and 150 residents—4 firms and 84 residents being British. By 1896 the figures had grown to 10 firms and 214 residents. In 1898 there were 270 residents—30 of these being Russian. In 1899 there were 17 firms and 1,810 residents—3 firms and 1,450 residents being Russian, 7 firms and 72 residents Japanese. The Russian residents were, of course, mainly connected with the

railway. In 1900 the Foreign community numbered 1,954, which included a small Russian garrison; and the following list shows the Foreign firms and residents here in 1901:—

	FIRMS.	RESIDENTS.
British	4	123
American	1	17
German	1	18
French	34
Dutch	1
Danish	6
Swedish	8
Norwegian	4
Russian	4	1,500*
Austrian	1	1
Japanese	8	92
Other nationalities	6
TOTAL	19	1,810

The Chinese population of the port is stated usually at about 60,000. This at present is probably too high, as the 1900 troubles no doubt reduced the figures considerably. The population fluctuates a great deal, the town being much fuller in the open season than in the winter. A large number of Chinese must also reside in the huge fleet of up-river boats.

(h.) LOCAL IMPROVEMENTS.—*Foreign*.—Under this heading there were several improvements during the period under consideration. In 1897 the Assembly Rooms, a general amusement hall for the Foreign community, were erected. A cricket and recreation ground was laid out, and in the same year a building in Foreign style was erected for a Chinese hospital. These improvements the community owed to the energy of Dr. DE BURGH DALY. In 1899 a church for the Foreign community was erected. In 1900 a public garden was laid out on a piece of vacant ground to the east of the Customs premises. The Bund foreshore was piled and faced with heavy stones during 1901, and the Customs Bund was likewise repaired in the same year. A good many footpaths were made and some lampposts put up in the Foreign Settlement during the period, and a commencement to pave with stone one of the main cart roads leading through the Foreign Settlement was made in 1901; many Foreign houses and godowns were also erected in the same year. In 1900 a tug and lighter company, under Foreign supervision, was started, under the name of the "Newchwang Tug and Lighter Company."

Native Town.—Under the Russian Administration a system of drainage was instituted, the streets were kept clean, and a number of street lamps, urinals, etc., put up.

(i.) RIVER.—No material changes took place in the course of the lower river. It should, however, be noted that during strong freshets the channel below Hunter's Point shifts from the north shore to the south shore of the river; and as the freshets subside, so the channel gradually

* Not including troops or camp-followers.

goes back to its original course. The upper river, from Tung-chiang-tzu down to the port, was surveyed in 1901 by a party of Russian officers.

The Bar.—During the 10 years the Bar extended seawards, and the entrance, or fairway, is now more to the eastward. In consequence of this the entrance buoy was shifted to the S.E. $\frac{1}{2}$ mile in 1893, and again shifted S.W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. 5 cables in 1896. Although the Bar is now much longer, the depth of water obtained in the fairway is the same as it was 30 years ago.

(j) AIDS TO NAVIGATION.—The only light under the control of this office is that exhibited by the lightship *Newchwang*. During the war with Japan, in 1895, there was no light-vessel on the station; and during the years 1896, 1897, and 1898, and until the 28th August 1899 there was only a temporary lightship here, the British barque *Omega* being chartered for that purpose. On the 28th August 1899 the lightship *Newchwang* returned from Shanghai, with her illuminating apparatus changed from a fixed to a revolving light.

Buoys.—The inner buoy, painted red, was changed to a fairway buoy, and painted red and black horizontally in stripes in 1897.

PILOTAGE SERVICE.—The local rules and byelaws for the ordering of pilotage matters at this port were revised in 1901 by the Harbour Master, in consultation with the Consular authorities, and the tariff was increased by *Local Tael* 1 per foot. The rules as amended were found to work well, and the pilotage service was efficiently maintained.

(k) CALAMITIES.—The effect of the typhoon which raged off the Shantung Promontory on the 24th July 1896 was felt in Newchwang in the form of a tidal wave. The water rose considerably ($2\frac{1}{2}$ feet) above ordinary spring tides, and stood high in the streets of the town. Many Foreign houses were flooded and much damage was caused, and a great number of Native houses collapsed.

Slight shocks of earthquake were noticed here at 1 A.M. on the 5th February 1894, and again at 3.7 P.M. on the 24th February 1899, lasting about 3 seconds, travelling from south to north.

The comparative tables showing rainfall and dates of opening and closing of port, etc., for the decennary (Appendices Nos. 10 and 11) were carefully compiled from the records of this office.

(l) to (o.)

(p.) PHYSICAL FEATURES.—The physical features of Manchuria have already been described in the last Decennial Report.

As far as this port is concerned, the most important river is the Liao-ho and its affluents, this being the great waterway on which the bulk of our trade is carried. Up to the present boats are allowed to ascend the river as far as Tung-chiang-tzu only, though during the rainy season they might ascend much further.

Tung-chiang-tzu really stands on Mongolian soil, about 570 li by land distant from this port. For nearly 30 years the Mongolian Prince has permitted it to be used as a port and grain collecting place until it has now become the greatest grain emporium on the river, outstripping T'ieh-ling in importance. Beans, etc., are brought there by cart from the great producing

districts in Mongolia and Kirin, and are taken thence by boat to the port. From Tung-chiang-tzu the river flows in a more or less south-westerly direction until it reaches the port and enters the sea a few miles below. An arm of the river, or rather a canal, runs from Tang-chia-wo-p'u (唐家窩鋪) to the Tung-sha-ho (東沙河); but this canal being very shallow is of little importance, except during the rainy season, when a good deal of smuggling used to be done on this route until a Native Customs station was established at Shuang-t'ai-tzu (雙台子), in 1897.

From Tung-chiang-tzu as far as San-ch'a-ho (三汊河) the river is, during the dry season, very shallow—in fact, in some places so shallow that even empty boats, drawing about $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet, have difficulty in crossing. It is a common occurrence to discharge the cargo above or below the shallow and reload after the boat has been lifted over. Below San-ch'a-ho, where the Li-ho (inner river), a conflux of the Hun-ho (渾河) from Moukden and the T'ai-tzu-ho (太資河) from Liaoyang, joins the Liao-ho, the river becomes considerably deeper and broader. At San-ch'a-ho the tide rises about 5 feet at spring tides. A tug-boat, drawing about 6 feet, has ascended the river up to here, but found it impossible to proceed further, the vessel being too long to turn the very narrow bends of the river higher up.

The principal grain emporia on or near the Liao-ho are: Tung-chiang-tzu, Ying-shou-t'un (the port of K'ai-yuan), T'ieh-ling, Hsin-min-t'un, and T'ien-chuang-t'ai; on the Hun-ho: Moukden; on the T'ai-tzu-ho: Liaoyang.

NATURAL PRODUCTS.—Manchuria is without a doubt rich in mineral resources; nearly every variety of ore has been found, but very little is worked on modern lines or with machinery.

Gold is mined with machinery by a Native company, under Government license, at the Mo-ho mines, in the valley of a small tributary of the Amoor. It is also obtained by washing the sands of the numerous rivulets and streams to the north-east of Moukden. There were over *Hk. Ta* 9,000,000 worth of gold in bars, shoes, and dust exported during the last 10 years. The bars and shoes are shipped principally to Shanghai, probably for coinage abroad. Dust goes mostly to Tientsin; its use has been impossible to ascertain.

Coal is found plentifully in various parts of Manchuria; some of it is considered equal to Cardiff coal. The principal mining districts are: in the hills north-east of Liaoyang; Ch'ao-yang-chên (朝陽鎮), near Kirin; and Wa-fang-tien (瓦房店), south of Kai-chou. At the first two places Foreigners are interested in some mines, but they are all worked in the primitive Native style. At Mo-chi-shan (膜麟山), near Liaoyang, and at Wa-fang-tien the mines are worked with machinery under Foreign supervision in connexion with the Chinese Eastern Railway.

Salt is obtained in enormous quantities by sun evaporation of sea water along the coast of Fengtien to the south and west of this port. There are in total about 3,600 salt pans; the low-lying flat which extends to the south of Yingkow for nearly 20 miles is one continuous field of salt pans. It is estimated that a large salt pan yields about 400 *tan* (1 *tan* = about 600 cabbies) and a small one, about 150 *tan*, per year. Salt is forbidden to be exported, but no doubt large quantities are smuggled away by Native craft. The whole of Manchuria and probably also large parts of Mongolia draw their salt supplies from this neighbourhood. The average price at the port is about \$3.50 to \$4 per *tan* of 600 cabbies.

A very interesting description of the manufacture of salt in this district is given in Mr. ALEX. HOSIE's "Manchuria;" but the manufacture is not, as stated in that book and by several other writers, a Government monopoly, for it is open to anyone rich enough to buy a site to establish a saltpan. The payment of the price, varying, according to position, from Ftā 100 to Ftā 500, constitutes the site "property in perpetuity." The only taxes on salt are an annual tribute of 1 *tan* 5 *tou* per saltpan to the Imperial Household at Moukden, and the tax of 7.200 *tiao* (about Ftā 0.80) per *tan* (600 catties) on salt sold from the pans. During 1901 the salt tax was collected by the West (Native) Customs at the rate of Hk. Ftā 1 per *tan*.

On the eastern frontier of Manchuria there are large pine forests; some splendid timber is exported from Ta-ku-shan and other ports at the mouth of the Yalu; but the trade being carried on entirely by Native shipping and not touching this port, it is difficult to obtain reliable information in regard to it.

The rich virgin soil of Manchuria makes it an ideal grain-producing country, its climate being especially suitable for the hardier varieties, such as *kao-liang* (tall millet), *hsiao-mi* (spiked millet), maize, wheat, and barley.

Other important agricultural products are: beans (which with their manufactured products, beancake and bean oil, make up eight-tenths of our export values), ginseng, poppy, sesamum, various kinds of melons, tobacco, hemp, liquorice, and a variety of medicinal plants.

ANIMAL PRODUCTS.—The animal products are: pigs bristles, beeswax, young deer horns (which are highly prized for their supposed medicinal properties), and a great variety of furs—the most important among these are dog and goat skins: regular farms for the rearing of these animals exist in many parts of Northern Manchuria.

Wild raw silk is obtained in ever-increasing quantities from the cocoon of a worm (*Bombyx Pernyi*) fed on oak leaves. Its export rose steadily from 5,965 piculs in 1892 to 13,969 piculs in 1899 (this being the best year for comparison, 1900 and 1901 being more or less affected by the Boxer troubles). In 1896 a German firm imported some machinery for reeling silk; but the scheme was soon abandoned, being found unremunerative. The chief districts of production are Hai-ch'eng, Kai-chou, and Hsiu-yen.

INDUSTRIES.—*Bean Mills*.—Since the closing, in 1868, of the first steam bean mill, which proved a complete failure, owing chiefly to Native opposition, the idea of making beancake by machinery was evidently never lost sight of. The southern Chinese merchants, who have nearly the whole beancake trade in their hands, at last realised the advantage to be gained by making beancake and extracting the oil by machinery. In 1896 a steam bean mill, under Foreign auspices, probably to avoid Chinese official supervision, commenced work. Since then three more have been started—one in the summer of 1899, one in the autumn of 1900, and one in the autumn of 1901. All these mills are fitted with electric light, and though mostly under Foreign protection, they are entirely under Chinese control, the machinery being worked by Chinese without any Foreign aid. The four factories between them are able to turn out 15,600 beancakes per day. It requires about 8 *tou* (240 catties) of beans to make five beancakes, which are passed by the Customs at an average of 48 catties each. The process of making the beancake by machinery is similar to the Native method. The beans are crushed between two

iron rollers driven by steam; they are then placed on the steaming grate, where steam is supplied from the steam boiler, instead of from a pan with boiling water underneath the grate; the oil is pressed out with jackscrew presses. The beancakes made by machinery when compared with those made by Native method are stronger and drier, also paler in colour and better in appearance generally. The cost of outturn is about 20 per cent. cheaper and the yield of oil about 7 per cent. more. The cost of outturn by machinery being Ftā 0.25 and the yield of oil 22 catties per five cakes; whilst the cost by Native method is Ftā 0.30 and the yield of oil 20 catties per five cakes.

TRANSPORTATION OF MERCHANDISE in Manchuria is carried on principally by boat and cart. The rivers being frozen over for fully four months—from the end of November to the end of March,—boat traffic is naturally restricted to the summer months.

BOATS.—*Vide* "Native Shipping."

CARTS.—There are two kinds of carts employed in carrying cargo—large and small ones. Small carts, though principally used for passenger traffic, are often employed in carrying less bulky and more valuable cargo, particularly opium, owing to their being swifter than the large carts, especially during the summer months, when the heavy large carts are unable to travel on account of the bad condition of the roads.

A large cart with seven animals (mules and horses), able to carry about 4,000 catties, costs about Ftā 500, including cost of animals, which average Ftā 50 to Ftā 60 each.

Freight by large cart from Kuan-ch'eng-tzu to Yingkow is about 350 *tiao* (about \$55 to \$60) per load of grain, etc.; for bean oil, which has to be taken more care of, about 450 *tiao* (\$75) per load.

Going back from Yingkow to Kuan-ch'eng-tzu with sundries, freight comes to about 250 *tiao* (\$40 to \$50) per load. If there is no cargo, or only light cargo, a whole or part of a load of salt is taken for the return journey.

Food for seven animals and inn expenses amount to about 20 *tiao* (\$3) per day. When the roads are frozen hard and in their best condition, a large cart covers about 100 *li* per day, travelling from about 1 A.M. to 6 or 7 P.M.; a small cart will cover the same distance from about 5 A.M. to 5 P.M.

Carts usually travel in company of 10 or more; should one break down or otherwise be detained, its companions will stand by. On account of this and various other delays on the way, the journey from Kuan-ch'eng-tzu to Yingkow, a distance of about 900 *li*, takes at least 11 or 12 days.

The tax, formerly collected, on carts arriving at the port has been discontinued since the Russian occupation.

Since the late Boxer troubles, owing to the country being overrun by robbers, rendering the roads and waterways insecure, railway carriage has also been extensively availed of. On the Chinese Eastern Railway freight is charged at the rate of half a rouble per verst for one car, irrespective of the quantity carried. The average car is able to carry about 750 pood (about 28,000 catties). Thus the freight from T'ieh-ling to the port costs about \$138 per car. Up to the present railway traffic has been irregular, owing to insufficiency of rolling stock, etc., cargo trucks

being often detained several days at a station; and as most of the stations are a good distance away from the towns, necessitating extra expenditure for transporting the goods to godowns, etc., the Native cart, which delivers goods at any place of business without extra cost, is still considered cheaper than and preferred to the railway.

CLIMATE.—Dr. DE BURGH DALY, Customs Medical Officer, has been good enough to hand me the following notes upon the climate, etc., of the port:—

"It is not an exaggeration to say that the climate of this port is an excellent one. The cold in the winter is at times severe, the thermometer often being below zero at nighttime and even touching occasionally as low as -15° to -20° ; but cloudless skies, warm, bright sun, and light, bracing, dry air, with very little wind, enable this cold to be borne easily. The brightness of the atmosphere is shown by the barometer standing usually at between 30 and 31 inches during the winter months. During the spring the strong southerly breezes, with clouds of dust in the Settlement, are not pleasant. The summer, compared with the same season in other parts of China, is not hot, and there is an absence of damp heat, which is so trying elsewhere: the thermometer shows an average maximum during June of $78^{\circ}.9$ F.; July, of $83^{\circ}.6$ F.; and August, of $82^{\circ}.1$ F. The average annual rainfall is 21.4 inches, and about 68.5 per cent. occurs from June to September.

"The health of both Native and Foreign residents compares most favourably with other parts of China.

"Amongst the Chinese small-pox in winter and dysentery and other bowel troubles in summer carry off a large number; but as far as can be ascertained, in the absence of an epidemic such as plague, the average annual mortality does not much exceed 20 per 1,000 per annum; it is impossible, however, to obtain reliable statistics. The Chinese children appear strong and healthy in every respect, and the adults, with few exceptions, are of good physique and healthy appearance. There is plenty of work and food for all, and, consequently, very little poverty, with its attendant misery.

"The annual death-rate during the last seven years amongst Foreign residents of all ages is a little under 11 per 1,000, and in children under one year, about 90 per 1,000, both of which rates are remarkably low and compare favourably with any place in the world. The children look like those brought up and resident in the home lands: in winter there are bright red cheeks, and in summer a happy absence of the white faces which one sees so frequently amongst children in southern ports. The adults also all the year round are in far better health than those in other parts of China: an absence of malarial fever and serious bowel trouble, and the presence of good appetites during the summer, help to bring about this satisfactory result.

"The sanitary condition of the Settlement, however, stands in great need of improvement. The most urgent want is a good water supply. A well supplies the drinking water, and large ponds, the washing water; both these sources are liable to be fouled with dangerous matter. Macadamised roads, well watered, and a good drainage system are also much needed.

"The strong tide (3 to 5 knots) and muddy water make boating and bathing difficult and unattractive, and the recreations usually indulged in are tennis, cricket, football, and riding.

"Since the occupation of the port by the Russians the town has been kept in a much more sanitary condition, and this may have had a most beneficial result on the health of the town. In 1899 it is estimated that during the epidemic of bubonic plague about 20 to 30 per 1,000 of the inhabitants died, and in 1901, during the epidemic of the same disease, under 1 per 1,000 died."

(q.) NATIVE SHIPPING.—The Native shipping of the port of Newchwang is considerable, and comprises a great variety of craft, which are divided into two distinct classes—sea-going junks and inland-river boats. During the year 1901 some 12,000 in all of both classes were registered, of which some 10,000 were inland-river boats and about 2,000 were from sea. In ordinary and peaceful times some 16,000 inland-river boats enter this port and register; but owing to the troubles of 1900 and the present unsettled state of affairs in the interior a large portion of these inland-river boats never made an attempt to get to the port. The only reliable information with regard to Native shipping in this port is such as is obtainable since the opening of the Native Custom House, in August 1900, under the Russian Civil Administration. Under the new Administration great efforts have been made to get all Native craft trading with this port under proper Customs control, and as this Native Custom House was opened and started with everything new, free from old port practices, a good deal of success has been the result. The Natives soon got to appreciate fixed regulations and a certain tariff.

CLASSIFICATION OF SEA-GOING JUNKS.—Junks are mostly known here by the particular name of the class to which they belong, and in nearly every class of craft they are divided into "large" and "small."

Tientsin Junks.—Tientsin junks trading with this port are called *Nan-ho ch'uan* (南河船). *Kai-ch'iao ch'uan* (改巧船), but are commonly spoken of as *Wei ch'uan* (衛船). They carry from 1,300 *shih tan** (市石) (large) to 100 *shih tan* (small), and bring with them the following import cargo: cow hides, Native cotton goods, prepared tobacco, satin and cotton shoes, rush mats, iron pans, and other sundries. The average capital represented in a large junk is about $\text{T}12,000$, and that in a small junk, about $\text{T}12,000$.

Ning-ho Junks.—Junks from Ning-ho (甯河), in the province of Chihli, are called *Pei-ho ch'uan* (北河船) and also *Wei ch'uan* (衛船). They carry from 1,300 *shih tan* (large) to 100 *shih tan* (small), and bring with them the following import cargo from Lu-t'ai (蘆台), Pei-t'ang (北塘), and Ning-ho (甯河): lye, rush mats, cotton shoes, and boots, etc. The average capital represented in a large junk is about $\text{T}12,000$, and that in a small junk, about $\text{T}12,000$.

Lin-yü, etc., Junks.—Junks from Lin-yü (臨榆), Lo-t'ing (樂亭), Fu-ning (撫寧), and Luan-chou (灤州), in the province of Chihli, are called *Pei-tao ch'uan* (北島船). They carry from 700 *shih tan* (large) to 100 *shih tan* (small), and bring with them the following import cargo: shrimp skins, dried prawns, dried fish, walnuts, fresh pears, various kinds of fresh fruits, etc.

* A *shih tan* is the market *tan* of 300 catties.

Téng-chou, etc., Junks.—Junks from Téng-chou (登州), Lung-k'ou (龍口), Weihaiwei (威海衛), Ch'ing-chou (青州), Lai-chou (萊州), and Wu-ting (武定), in the province of Shantung, are called *Tung ch'uan* (東船) and *Téng yü* (登遊). They carry from 1,000 *shih tan* (large) to 100 *shih tan* (small), and bring with them the following import cargo: wheat, Native flour, paper, large earthenware water kangas, oat and wheat cakes, Shantung samshu, etc.

Local Junks.—The smaller class of sea-going junks belonging to Yingkow are called *Yen-érh-fei* (燕兒飛), *Kua-la* (瓜拉), *Téng yü* (登遊), and *Hung-t'ou* (紅頭). They generally trade between this port and the following places: Chefoo, Tientsin, Yang-ho (洋河), Hai-chou (海州), Ta-ku-shan (大孤山), and all the small ports and towns along the coast to the north-west and south-east of this port. They carry from 350 *shih tan* (large) to 80 *shih tan* (small), and they bring here the following import cargo: fish (fresh, salt, and dried), vegetables (fresh and salted), fresh fruits of all kinds, wheat, earthenware, oats, dried dates, hard-wood timber, soft-wood timber and beams, and oil grass (this grass is used in bean mills when manufacturing beancake). It is said that these boats pay well, especially when they lend a hand in the big game of salt smuggling.

Shanghai, etc., Junks.—Junks from Shanghai, Hai-chou (海州), and Kan-yü (贛榆), in the province of Kiangsu, are called *Sha ch'uan* (沙船) and *Nan ch'uan* (南船). They carry from 2,200 *shih tan* (large) to 500 *shih tan* (small), and bring with them the following import cargo: Native cloth of all kinds, fine and coarse chinaware, leather trunks, black and green tea, preserved eggs, and a great variety of sundries, and take away the ordinary exports. The average capital represented in a large *Sha ch'uan* is about Ta 15,000, and that in a small one, about Ta 4,000. The profit per round trip of a large junk is about Ta 1,200, and that of a small one, about Ta 450.

Ningpo, etc., Junks.—Junks from Ningpo, Chén-hai (鎮海), and Yin-hsien (鄞縣), in the province of Chehkiang, are called *Ning ch'uan* (甯船) and *Ningpo ch'uan* (甯波船). They carry from 2,200 *shih tan* (large) to 700 *shih tan* (small), and bring with them the following import cargo: paper, earthenware, fine and coarse chinaware, samshu, alum, black-wood pipe stems, black and green tea, Chinese medicines, mats, bamboos and bambooware, and other sundries, etc. The average capital represented in a large Ningpo junk is about Ta 15,000, and that in a small junk, about Ta 6,000. The profit per round trip of a large junk is about Ta 1,900, and that of a small junk, about Ta 500. The Ningpo junks are considered the best paying of all southern junks, as Ningpo has less steamer competition than the other ports, such as Amoy, Foochow, and Shanghai.

Amoy, etc., Junks.—Junks from Amoy (廈門), Ch'üan-chou (泉州), Hsing-hua (興化), and Foochow (福州), in the Fukkien province, trading with this port are called *Niao ch'uan* (鳥船), but are generally spoken of as *Tiao ch'uan* (鰲船). They carry from 2,000 *shih tan* (large) to 500 *shih tan* (small), and bring with them the following import cargo: 1st and 2nd quality paper, Lo-hai paper, joss paper, earthenware, bamboos, soft-wood poles, black and green tea, hard-wood, and various sundries, etc. They take away the staple exports. The

average capital represented in a large-class junk is about Ta 14,000, and that in a small-class junk, about Ta 5,500. The average profit per round trip for a large junk is about Ta 1,700, and that of a small junk, is about Ta 450.

INLAND-RIVER BOATS.—The thousands of inland-river boats trading with this port and the interior during the open season are of two distinct classes, the *Ts'ao* (槽) and the *Niu* (牛), and these are again divided into the "large" and "small" varieties.

Ts'ao boats carry from 60 to 120 *tan*, and *Niu* boats, from 40 to 70 *tan*. The *Ts'ao* carries a crew of four or five men, and a *Niu*, three or four men. The average capital represented in a *Ts'ao* boat is about Ta 500, and that in a *Niu* boat, about Ta 300. The two classes of boats are generally employed between this port and the following inland places: Hsiao-pei-ho (小北河), Liaoyang (遼陽), Moukden (瀋陽), Hsin-min-t'un (新民屯), Lao-ta-fang (老達房), San-mien-ch'uan (三面船), T'ieh-ling (鐵嶺), Ying-shou-t'un (英守屯), and Tung-chiang-k'ou (通江口). They bring with them into port from the interior the following goods: beans, tall millet, small millet, and other grain; hemp; jute; soda; potash; leaf tobacco, etc. They carry salt to the interior; and the greater part of all cargo imported to Yingkow both by Foreign and Native vessels is also carried inland by these two classes of boats.

Freight.—Goods coming from Hsiao-pei-ho, Liaoyang, Hsin-min-t'un, and Moukden pay the following freight per *tan* of 300 catties: in spring, 6 to 7 *tiao*; in summer, 2 to 3 *tiao*; and in autumn, 4 to 5 *tiao*. From Lao-fa-fang and San-mien-ch'uan: in spring, 8 to 9 *tiao*; in summer, 3 to 4 *tiao*; and in autumn, 6 to 7 *tiao*. From T'ieh-ling, Ying-shou-t'un, and Tung-chiang-k'ou: in spring, 11 to 12 *tiao*; in summer, 5 to 6 *tiao*; in autumn, 7 to 8 *tiao*. The above are average freights. During 1900, when the river was infested with pirates, who exacted regular taxes, the freight rose to double the amounts above stated from the various places, and from Tung-chiang-k'ou to the port it actually reached 30 *tiao* per *tan*. Freights really depend upon the distance, the time of the year, how many boats are at hand, and the state of the river in the shallow places. The freight on all goods carried from Yingkow to the various places in the interior is generally charged so much per package, according to size and the distance, and varies a good deal, the freight from Yingkow to Tung-chiang-k'ou being, on an average, from 4 to 5 *tiao* per package. The *Ts'ao* boats being larger and of deeper draught than the *Niu* boats, trade on the upper rivers, where the water is very shallow, after the rainy season only. The tax of 4 *tiao* per 100 *tan* of cargo brought from the interior to Yingkow levied by the Chinese authorities in former years has been abandoned since the Russian occupation of the port, and all goods carried by these river boats either way are exempt from all taxation at the Native Custom House, excepting "white," or unstamped, opium from the interior, which pays a tax of 4 mace per catty on arrival at this port. The only paper granted to river boats when leaving is a Clearance Permit, to allow the boat to proceed up river. This Permit is applied for through a Native guaranteed shipping agency, called an Up-river Pao Kuan Hang, and this agency is under a bond with the Native Custom House for Ta 3,000, deposited with the Customs Bank. On payment of Tonnage Dues, the Clearance Permit is granted. All up-river boats when nearing the Native Customs guard-boat station must stop and hand in the

Clearance Permits to the guard-boat officer, who compares the Permits with the numbers of the boats and numbers of *tan* painted on the boats and also those of the *Ch'uan-pai*, or Registration Cards. All goods imported and exported from or to sea pay Duty and Likin. All imports from Chinese ports only pay half, or Coast Trade, Duty, with the exception of beans, beancake, bean oil, grain, Native cloth, black tea, fine and coarse chinaware, earthenware, and Lo-hai paper, which pay full Duty but on a reduced tariff scale. Import Likin is 8 per mille *ad valorem*. All exports pay full Duty including the above-mentioned reduced tariff, and Likin at 5 per mille *ad valorem*. The examination of cargo and the payment of Duty and Likin are done through guaranteed Native shipping agents for sea-going junks, which are called Pao Kuan Hang, and are under bond with the Native Custom House for *Ta* 5,000, deposited with the Customs Bank. As soon as an inward-bound junk has passed the guard-boat and presented her Import Manifest to the Native Custom House through the Pao Kuan Hang, the agent is allowed at the same time to hand in the Import Application to have all her import cargo examined; on the completion of the examination the Application is sent to the General Office for calculation of Duty and Likin, after which a Duty Memo. is granted to the agent, who proceeds to the Customs Bank and there hands in the amount stated in the Duty Memo., for which the Bank grants a cheque. With his Memo. and cheque the agent returns to the General Office, which retains cheque and Duty Memo. and grants in return a Duty and Likin Proof stating all particulars of Duty-paid goods, etc. This *P'ing-tan*, or Duty Proof, is duly signed and stamped with the seal of the Native Customs. The agent shows this Proof to the Examiner at the Jetty, and the cargo is then released. A similar procedure takes place when junks clear.

YEARLY REGISTRATION OF ALL CLASSES OF SEA-GOING JUNKS AND INLAND-RIVER BOATS.—Once every year all classes of craft arriving at this port from sea or from inland must report to the Customs for registration and measuring for tonnage, or *shih tan*, capacity. The result of the measurement and registration is painted on each craft, for which a fee of *Ta* 2.50 has to be paid. When the fee has been paid, a Registration Card, or *Ch'uan-pai*, is granted, on which is stated all particulars, such as boat number, name, *tan*, class of boat, owner, and Native place to which the boat belongs.

TONNAGE DUES.—The following Tonnage Dues per *shih tan* are charged each time when leaving port:—

Junks of	1 to	500 <i>tan</i> burden	...	5 cash.
"	500 "	900 "	...	7 "
"	900 "	1,500 "	...	1 candareen.
"	1,500 "	2,000 "	...	1 " 5 cash.
"	2,000 <i>tan</i> burden and upwards	...	3 " 5 "	

Should the last-mentioned class of junk enter and clear twice within two months, the vessel will be exempt from paying Tonnage Dues a second time.

(r.) NATIVE BANKING AGENCIES.—Besides the Haikwan Bank—which up to the time of the Russian occupation did all official business, *i.e.*, collecting Duties, Dues, etc., and paying

official expenditure,—there are two classes of Native banking establishments at this port: the Hui Tui Chuang (匯兌莊) and the Lu Fang (爐房).

There are 13 Hui Tui Chuang, 10 being owned by Shansi bankers and 3 by Natives of Chihli. They advance money on merchandise and other reliable security, and transact general exchange business. They do accept deposits, but as their rate of interest is small, very little is deposited with them.

There are 15 Lu Fang, or smelting shops—so called because all silver coming into the place is smelted by them and recast into local shoes,—mostly established by and still connected with the larger business firms. The Russo-Chinese Bank has also started a smelting shop.

A distinction is made here between *hard sycee* (*hsien yin*, 現銀) and *transfer money* (*kuo-lu yin*, 過爐銀).

Nearly all local mercantile business is done in transfer money, passing through the hands of the Lu Fang.

An account in transfer money may be started as follows:—

- (a.) By a credit allowed on the strength of good recommendation.
- (b.) By sale of goods.
- (c.) By paying in *hard sycee* and converting it into *transfer money*.

Hard sycee when paid into a Lu Fang is allowed a premium (*chia-sai*, 加色), ranging, on an average, from *Ta* 0.10 to *Ta* 3 (fluctuating according to demand and supply) per shoe of about *Ta* 53.50; with this premium added on it is placed to the credit of the depositor as *transfer money*, which on settling days—1st day of the 3rd, 6th, 9th, and 12th moons—again becomes *hard sycee*; but as the Lu Fang like to keep the money in their hands, transfer money is on settling days of late only called *hard transfer money*, which may again be converted into transfer money by adding the premium (*chia-sai*) of the day; but if demanded in *hard sycee*, a premium is charged by the Lu Fang.

Transfer money cannot be withdrawn in *hard sycee*, except on settling days, unless the premium (*chia-sai*) of the day is paid; but, as the Foreign expression-implies, may be transferred to another person's account in payment for goods, etc.; if that person keeps his account with another Lu Fang, the amount can be transferred to his credit there without any charge being made.

Nearly all business among the Natives being done by word of mouth only, thousands of taels are transferred from one person to another without cheque or other receipt being issued, the Lu Fang's books being the only written evidence of the transaction.

Drafts on all principal coast ports and inland places may be obtained at time sight, according to the distance of the place, through the Hui Tui Chuang, or the large firms who

have branches at the various places. Since the opening of the Russo-Chinese and Yokohama Specie Banks, drafts on Europe can also be obtained.

All exchange quotations (*hui-shui*, 匯水) for drafts are in transfer money, so that when wishing to remit hard sycee the *chia-sai* has first to be added. For instance, I wish to remit equivalent of 100 shoes of sycee (say, Tls. 5,350) to Shanghai, sycee premium (*chia-sai*) being Tls. 1.50, exchange (*hui-shui*), $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.—

Newchwang Tls. 5,350.00
150.00 <i>chia-sai</i> for 100 shoes.
5,500.00
192.50 <i>hui-shui</i> at $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.

I receive Shanghai Tls. 5,692.50 draft on Shanghai.

Exchange is usually so arranged that money is not likely to be withdrawn in large sums, except when really necessary, rate on other places being usually low when local rate (*chia-sai*) is high, and *vice versa*, so that it pays better to leave the money in the Lu Fang's hands at local rates.

(a.) NATIVE POSTAL AGENCIES.—The Native postal hong, which have existed in Manchuria for many decades, during the last few years increased to such a number that a very keen competition resulted.

With the establishment of the Imperial Post, in 1897, the Native postal establishments then existing in this port and neighbourhood were asked to register under the Imperial Post. Six or seven hong took immediate advantage and accepted the invitation, and others followed later, until, in 1901, 15 appeared on the register. Of this total, six transact business exclusively with other coast ports, the remainder limiting their attention to inland trade centres. The latter have either branch establishments or agencies in all the principal business places throughout the three Manchurian provinces, with which fairly regular communication is maintained.

In most cases a daily service is necessary to meet the requirements of traders and merchants. To keep up rapid and economical services, two and more hong combine, who despatch their couriers in rotation to certain places and divide the profits.

As a rule, one-half of the postage is paid in advance by the sender, the other half being collected from addressee on delivery; but most merchants and the larger traders prefer to pay an annual sum to a hong, which, in return, undertakes to carry all mail matter entrusted to it. A sufficient guarantee is given by the postal hong, in order that they may be entrusted with the most important and valuable mail matter. It rarely happens that any matter of value goes astray through inattention or dishonesty of the couriers or their principals. The amount of guarantee given is in proportion to the annual sum paid by the merchant and the nature and bulk of mail matter to be transmitted.

According to Native usage, the value and nature of the contents of a letter or package are plainly described on the outer cover or label, and the statement is accepted without any question by the postal hong. Should a package be lost during transit or whilst in custody of a hong, the declared value is made good to the sender. The I.P.O. does not accept registered articles with the value declared on their outer coverings. This prohibition is viewed by many Natives with suspicion, and they consequently prefer to entrust their mail matter to Native postal hong.

Merchants in this part of China complete most of their correspondence at night after the day's transactions, and postal hong send messengers late in the evening to collect any correspondence that may be ready for despatch. This practice is obviously convenient to the merchant, who is willing accordingly to pay a higher tariff to the letter hong than the I.P.O. rates demand. Again, the departure of couriers from one place to another is delayed when possible until the market rates for the day of the more important commodities have been declared, and these rates upon the couriers arrival at the next place are immediately communicated to clients by means of posters, etc. This practice is found to be one of the main attractions to the Native posting establishments.

Wherever communication by railway is possible, the postal hong have immediately recognised the advantage, even long before any lines were open to the public. They have found means through bribery and handsome remuneration to induce Native railway employes to carry their mails clandestinely from place to place. These means will eventually fail when once the railways are regularly organised.

Besides recognised Native postal hong, numerous bogus ones have of late sprung into existence. These are distributed all over the Manchurian provinces, but are more numerous in the larger towns and trade centres.

(2.) CHANGES IN CUSTOMS WORK, STAFF, ETC.—The increase of trade during the last decade naturally entailed a proportionate increase in the volume of work at the Custom House, particularly in the office, necessitating an addition to the clerical staff by one Linguist, one Writer, and one Shupan in 1899, and another Linguist in 1900.

Since the Russian occupation this office also performed part of the work formerly done by the Taotai's yamén, i.e., under the Chinese régime the Duties were paid by cheques to the yamén, who handed them to the Haikwan Bank for collection; now the cheques are paid to the Custom House, who hands them to the Russo-Chinese Bank for collection. This Custom House also undertook, by instructions from the Provisional Administration, the collection of Likin on Chinese-owned cargo carried by Foreign-type vessels, formerly levied by the Chinese authorities, viz., eight-tenths per cent. *ad valorem* on imports and five-tenths per cent. *ad valorem* on exports.

But the most important occurrence in connexion with Customs work has been the placing of the Native Customs under Foreign supervision. Shortly after the disappearance of the Chinese officials, in August 1900, the Native Custom House was reopened by the Provisional Administration, with a Foreign staff lent by this office.

The Native (usually called the West) Custom House collects Duties on all junk-carried cargo at Treaty Tariff rates—excepting certain specified goods, on which the Duty was reduced from the 1st May 1901 to the rate formerly assessed by the Chinese authorities—and Likin at the rate of eight-tenths per cent. *ad valorem* on imports and five-tenths per cent. *ad valorem* on exports.

On cargoes carried by inland-river boats no Duty is levied at the port, but all boats—sea-going as well as trading inland—are charged Tonnage Dues, according to their carrying capacity, each time they leave port, excepting large junks over 2,000 *tan* (= 6,000 piculs) burden, which pay only once should they clear twice within two months.

During 1901 the Native Customs maritime revenue amounted to nearly *Hk.Tta* 300,000, showing that the trade carried on in Native vessels is still an important one here.

The post office at this port became a department of the Customs in the spring of 1878, the revenue derived from the sale of stamps being but a few taels; in 1881 it amounted to *Hk.Tta* 120, and in 1891, to *Hk.Tta* 231; in 1896, the year before the establishment of the Chinese Imperial Post, it advanced to *Hk.Tta* 537; since then it has been more rapid. Besides the sale of stamps, income was derived from courier charges levied during the winter season when the port is closed by ice. These charges were discontinued for the first time during the winter 1900-01, when all mails were conveyed to and from Port Arthur by rail and thence by steamer to and from other coast ports. In this manner mails between Shanghai and this port were but five to six days in transit. Formerly mails were sent *via* Tientsin and Chinkiang, and were three to four weeks *en route*. Another route, *via* Peitaiho, reduced the time to 10 days. The 17 inland postal stations in existence in this district in 1900 were all closed during the Boxer rising in the same year; 13 have now been reopened. Mail communication is maintained by foot couriers and by railway. Some of the offices are self-supporting, and, it is hoped, will be followed in time by others as the facilities become better known to the public. Previous to 1897 the number of Chinese letters passing through the post office did not exceed several dozen per annum, but at the present time aggregate tens of thousands. The numerous Native postal hongs, which have connexions with all principal cities and trade centres throughout Manchuria, though their business is declining, still continue to make it profitable.

At the end of 1900 a Russian post office was opened at this port in connexion with the military field post. An Imperial Japanese post office was also established in August 1901.

(u.)

(u.) MISSIONARY SOCIETIES.—*Roman Catholic*.—The appended table (Appendix No. 12) shows the growth of the work of "La Société des Missions étrangères de Paris" during the period under review.

Protestant.—The following statistics of the Scotch United Presbyterian and Irish Presbyterian Missions are for the year ended April 1900, before the Boxer outbreak had

destroyed the property and interrupted the work of these societies; no later statistics are obtainable:—

Foreign pastors	22
" doctors	8
Lady doctors	4
Zenana ladies	10
Native pastors	2
Elders	40
Deacons	414
Chapels	92
Churches	42
Places of worship	157
Reported membership in 1899	16,241
" " 1900	19,646
Communicants	3,059
Catechumens	7,126
Schools	93
Boys in school	727
Girls "	381
Collections for preachers	<i>Tiao</i> 5,417
Miscellaneous collections	" 114,356
School collections	" 5,957
Hospital "	" 508
British and Foreign Bible Society collections	" 683

(w.)

(x.) CELEBRATED OFFICIALS.—I-KO-TANG-A (俄克唐阿), a Manchu of Kirin, held the office of Tartar General (將軍) at Moukden from 1895 till his death, in 1899, having been promoted to this post from Heilungchiang. He exhibited a good deal of tenacity and some ability in fighting against the Japanese in 1894.

LI PING-HENG (李秉衡), Chinese, born at Hai-ch'eng (海城), in the province of Fengtien, held the office of Governor of Shantung at the time of the German occupation of Kiaochow. He committed suicide, to escape punishment after the collapse of the Boxer movement in 1900.

(y.) and (z.)

NOTE.—Of the various headings in the above Report, those under (d.) Opium, (e.) Exchange and Banking, (f.) Trade Values, (p.) Physical Features, (r.) Native Banks, and (t.) Changes in Customs Work, were contributed by Mr. A. SCHMIDT, 3rd Assistant, A; those under (v.) Missions

and (z.) Celebrated Officials, by Mr. E. GILCHRIST, 3rd Assistant, A; those under (h.) Local Improvements, (i.) River, (j.) Aids to Navigation, and (k.) Calamities, by Mr. M. B. J. STRÖM, Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master; (q.) Native Shipping, by Mr. J. N. SEGERDAL, Examiner (detached for the West Customs); and (s.) Native Postal Agencies, by Mr. H. P. MILLER, Assistant Postal Officer.

CECIL A. V. BOWRA,

Assistant-in-Charge.

CUSTOM HOUSE,

NEWCHWANG, 31st December 1901.

APPENDICES.

APPENDIX No. 1.

VICE-ADMIRAL ALEXEIEFF TO CONSULS.

July 24th (August 6th), 1900.

SIR,

The hostile behaviour of the Chinese authorities, who had first encouraged the rebellion and then declared that they could not maintain order, ended in an open attack on our forces placed in this city in accordance to the wish of the Consular Body. During the said attack the Chinese authorities had fled, leaving the town to its fate.

To avoid disorder and looting by the Chinese mob, and with the object of protecting the commerce of the port and the property of Foreigners, the Russian military authority found it necessary to place the town under the guard of the Imperial Russian troops.

It may be added that the perfidious destruction of the Chinese Eastern Railway by the insurgents and soldiers also necessitated our placing in Yingkow a force of troops to protect the same.

Nevertheless, the Imperial Government tried to avoid this extreme measure, Yingkow being a Treaty port. It is to be understood that the temporary Administration that is to be established, in the interests of the Russians as well as the Foreigners and Chinese, will not infringe the rights and privileges which they have enjoyed previously in Yingkow.

The Foreign community has to note that the sole object of the Provisional Russian Administration is to maintain peace and order and restore trade, and I hope in these endeavours to have the sincere support of the Foreign Representatives.

I have, etc.,

(Signed) E. ALEXEIEFF.

APPENDIX No. 2.

REGULATIONS FOR THE IMPERIAL RUSSIAN PROVISIONAL CIVIL ADMINISTRATION
OF THE PORT OF NEWCHWANG.

The port of Newchwang being occupied by the Imperial Russian troops, the following Administration is established:—

1. *Chief of the Administration.*—The head of the Administration is the Civil Administrator, appointed by the Commander-in-Chief of the Kwantung province and its troops, and confirmed by the Imperial Edict.

2. *Officers of the Administration.*—The Civil Administrator is assisted by a Council, with the consulting power, which will be called in case of need, as follows:—

Commandant of the place,
Representative of the Consular Body,
Representative of the Foreign Merchants,
Representative of the Chinese Guilds,
Commissioners of Customs, and
Sanitary Inspector.

The above said Council is presided over by the Civil Administrator or, in case of his absence, by the Commandant of the place, who will also replace the Civil Administrator in case of sickness.

The Civil Administrator will also be assisted by a Town Council, consisting of the Representatives of the Native merchants, to meet the views of the local merchants and inhabitants.

To assist the Civil Administrator two Secretaries are appointed, as well as the following officers to manage the various branches of the Administration: (1) Chief of the Police, (2) Revenue Inspector and Treasurer, (3) City Judge, and (4) Sanitary Inspector; also (5) a necessary staff of Interpreters.

For the purpose of defending the port against any emergency, as well as securing the regular traffic of goods overland and by river, there is appointed a Commandant of the place. All the troops situated in this port will be under his orders, except those detached for the police service. The rights and duties of the Commandant will be regulated by special orders of the Commander-in-Chief.

3. *Rights of the Civil Administrator.*—The Civil Administrator has the right to issue byelaws, impose poll taxes and duties on the Natives, dispose of the movable and real estates belonging to the Chinese Government, conform the expenditure of funds assigned or received for maintaining the Administration and for the municipal expenses, and enter into relations with the Foreign Representatives.

4. *Police Department.*—To maintain order in the city there is appointed a Chief of the Police (military officer) with one assistant and the required number of policemen. To keep order on the river and amongst the junks there is appointed a guard-ship under command of an officer and with sufficient number of river policemen. Besides maintaining general order in the city, the police are charged with making reports of the number of the population, houses, and public institutions. The river police are ordered to refuse admittance to the port of junks with arms, Chinese soldiers, and munitions of war.

5. *Revenue Inspector and Treasurer.*—The Revenue Inspector and Treasurer, with his subordinates, collects from the Chinese population usual taxes and duties as well as taxes and duties which may be imposed by the Civil Administrator. The Revenue Inspector receives and disburses all moneys, both from the Government as well as from taxes and duties, and is accountable for same; accounts to be rendered every three months to the Commander-in-Chief of the Kwantung province for audit.

6. *Customs.*—The Chinese Maritime Customs, coming under the supervision of the Imperial Russian Government, will maintain its previous organisation. The rights of the staff as regards their service and salary remain without change. As in the meantime the Russian Government is responsible for the Customs revenue, it will be represented in the Customs service by appointing a co-Commissioner whose rights will be regulated by special orders.

In the Maritime Customs is established a special Chinese department to collect duties from the Chinese junks and merchandise, which income does not go to the general Customs revenue but to be held at the disposal of the Civil Administrator. The Chief of this department to receive an additional salary.

7. *Court of Justice.*—To try cases between Natives there is appointed a City Judge, who will be guided by the regulations of the Mixed Courts in China. Under his jurisdiction are cases lodged by the police as well as cases between Natives and Russians, or between the Foreigners who have not their own Consular Representatives.

Cases between Foreigners who have a Consular Representative will be tried by their respective Consuls.

Cases in which the Foreigner is accused by the Native will be tried by his respective Consul, and cases in which the Native is accused by the Foreigner by the City Judge.

Capital charges against Natives as well as highway robbery, treason, or smuggling contraband of war, will be tried by court-martial appointed by the military authorities.

8. *Sanitary Inspector.*—To superintend the sanitary condition of the town as well as to organise medical aid for the inhabitants, there is appointed a doctor and the necessary staff required.

9. *Appointments and Dismissals of Chiefs of Departments.*—The chiefs of the different departments, viz., Chief of Police, Revenue Inspector and Treasurer, City Judge, and Sanitary Inspector, as well as co-Commissioner of Customs, are appointed or dismissed by order of the Commander-in-Chief of the Kwantung province and its troops upon representation of the Civil Administrator.

10. *Foreign and Native Staff.*—The Civil Administrator has power to engage by agreement with the chiefs of the different departments Foreigners and Natives for service in the various branches of the Administration, and to fix their salaries.

11. *Departmental Regulations.*—The detail regulations for each branch of the Administration will be drawn up by the Civil Administrator conjointly with the chiefs of the different departments, and presented to the Commander-in-Chief of the Kwantung province and its troops for his approval.

12. *Finance.*—For the maintenance of the Provisional Administration and to accomplish its decisions, the Imperial Russian Government is advancing funds which will be reimbursed from the taxes and duties collected from the Natives as well as from the income of the Chinese department of the Maritime Customs.

Approved:

*Commander-in-Chief of the Kwantung Province and
its Troops, and Naval Forces in the Pacific,*

(Signed) Vice-Admiral E. ALEXEIEFF.

27th July (9th August) 1900,
YINGKOW.

APPENDIX No. 3.

GROWTH OF NEWCHWANG TRADE, WITH DECENNIAL AVERAGES, 1872-1901.

YEAR.	SHIPPING.		VALUE OF TRADE.				VALUE OF DIRECT FOREIGN TRADE.	REVENUE.
	No. of Vessels Entered.	Tonnage.	Net Foreign Imports.	Net Native Imports.	Exports.	Total Net Value of Trade.		
			Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.
1872.....	258	89,069	2,214,500	1,156,789	2,000,502	5,371,791	483,831	235,625
1873.....	208	73,772	2,355,661	835,382	1,582,464	4,773,507	302,714	203,226
1874.....	256	90,542	1,639,487	793,648	1,753,543	4,186,678	319,393	192,751
1875.....	351	130,675	1,739,920	1,085,455	2,687,680	5,513,055	375,718	239,466
1876.....	318	110,640	2,970,355	1,339,446	2,639,324	6,949,125	262,491	257,221
1877.....	276	113,533	2,329,694	1,517,142	3,130,449	6,877,285	252,124	237,269
1878.....	435	192,571	3,634,398	1,751,449	4,387,116	9,772,963	517,283	353,669
1879.....	355	160,021	3,185,794	1,374,083	3,654,737	8,214,614	537,064	333,733
1880.....	337	160,867	2,075,862	1,295,803	3,353,371	6,725,036	408,061	304,216
1881.....	332	159,098	1,541,288	987,081	3,552,063	6,080,432	235,003	286,273
AVERAGE, 1872-81.....	313	128,078	2,358,695	1,213,627	2,874,124	6,446,448	369,368	264,344
1882.....	316	165,325	1,738,866	1,260,398	3,625,918	6,625,182	253,518	284,231
1883.....	326	186,040	1,807,995	1,291,177	3,913,476	7,012,648	215,800	298,450
1884.....	282	187,935	2,056,795	1,633,615	4,123,084	7,813,494	245,833	306,207
1885.....	316	203,568	2,264,290	1,459,355	4,574,471	8,298,116	283,109	341,604
1886.....	251	160,314	2,447,093	1,627,528	4,526,595	8,601,216	231,778	303,205
1887.....	302	208,904	2,745,636	2,133,739	5,477,298	10,356,673	281,631	405,212
1888.....	307	210,525	2,681,598	1,597,263	5,686,007	9,964,868	360,261	374,817
1889.....	253	192,142	2,204,041	1,678,394	5,567,569	9,450,004	333,701	337,431
1890.....	354	267,822	4,449,057	2,801,408	7,197,816	14,448,281	545,221	484,687
1891.....	433	334,709	6,060,683	2,934,344	8,069,746	17,064,773	840,155	583,343
AVERAGE, 1882-91.....	314	211,728	2,845,605	1,841,722	5,276,198	9,963,525	359,100	371,918
1892.....	428	331,832	5,166,304	2,130,961	9,065,658	16,362,923	1,533,079	544,546
1893.....	397	290,654	5,548,403	2,801,027	9,310,424	17,659,854	2,838,037	491,010
1894.....	400	297,625	5,343,017	2,543,144	8,532,443	16,418,604	2,399,158	504,883
1895.....	230	186,142	2,465,400	1,283,219	5,605,086	9,353,705	1,450,458	...
1896.....	411	332,208	8,112,912	3,381,147	11,277,287	22,771,346	5,442,414	566,702
1897.....	433	365,482	8,995,929	3,554,130	13,808,612	26,358,671	7,189,241	568,547
1898.....	486	413,885	10,577,471	4,415,564	17,448,280	32,441,315	8,634,916	634,237
1899.....	582	503,209	21,775,950	5,965,942	20,615,751	48,357,623	13,972,326	928,739
1900.....	378	321,939	7,732,434	2,822,652	11,469,557	22,024,643	6,597,832	498,244
1901.....	539	470,773	17,056,813	6,463,176	18,742,220	42,262,209	11,597,497	751,621
AVERAGE, 1892-1901.....	428	351,975	9,277,461	3,536,096	12,587,532	25,401,089	6,164,996	609,837

* Estimates only.

APPENDIX

IMPORT OF DRILLS, SHEETINGS,

YEAR.	DRILLS.														ENGLISH.
	ENGLISH.		AMERICAN.		INDIAN.		JAPANESE.		DUTCH.		CHINESE.				
	Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.			
1882.....	22,009	34,108	90,240	225,738	24,739	44,173	
1883.....	24,868	43,651	112,463	267,222	2,400	4,001	15,530	28,132	
1884.....	6,540	11,844	138,075	324,874	26,896	49,103	
1885.....	9,110	16,094	102,045	229,462	20,636	32,948	
1886.....	21,165	40,159	174,870	379,589	24,458	47,616	
1887.....	40,169	77,827	100,526	215,019	2,100	3,744	56,574	115,356	
1888.....	34,780	70,066	103,148	219,005	36,405	70,108	
1889.....	36,335	74,115	124,400	258,097	15,800	30,434	
1890.....	92,330	182,036	161,373	333,818	150	225	53,505	102,004	
1891.....	26,170	55,258	220,715	572,007	510	1,463	28,000	62,349	
1892.....	18,845	45,600	153,485	401,007	3,615	8,496	41,150	92,913	
1893.....	80,110	223,903	100,785	302,648	1,365	3,702	20,665	55,673	3,510	10,176	71,110	195,810	
1894.....	36,780	119,454	141,250	489,342	615	1,845	3,425	8,108	4,320	12,960	13,195	43,637	
1895.....	38,460	130,764	72,485	264,788	1,910	6,112	945	3,024	12,885	42,522	24,940	88,644	
1896.....	9,990	39,406	246,993	855,706	7,355	20,354	360	1,080	2,925	8,190	990	3,168	27,352	83,141	
1897.....	349,195	1,186,236	1,980	5,088	450	1,440	9,890	33,621	
1898.....	1,650	5,115	367,916	1,270,466	1,695	4,690	15,330	52,122	
1899.....	3,870	12,199	584,877	2,023,646	630	1,890	395	1,146	480	1,392	450	1,380	11,911	40,916	
1900.....	116,525	419,490	1,650	5,280	210	630	750	2,535	2,792	10,051	
1901.....	580	2,030	546,498	1,967,393	3	10	2,610	9,135	200	700	3,210	11,235	

APPENDIX

IMPORT OF COTTON

YEAR.	ENGLISH.	
	Piculs.	Value, Hk. Tn.
1892.....	243	5,620
1893.....	195	4,328
1894.....	144	3,015
1895.....	972	21,384
1896.....	615	15,811
1897.....	699	14,528
1898.....	876	19,569
1899.....	591	14,433
1900.....	186	4,836
1901.....	291	7,275

No. 4.

AND JEANS, 1882-1901.

SHEETINGS.										JEANS.					
AMERICAN.		INDIAN.		JAPANESE.		DUTCH.		CHINESE.		ENGLISH.		AMERICAN.		DUTCH.	
Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Pieces.	Value, Hk. Tn.
55,350	135,791	670	960	300	580
72,205	170,794
153,195	362,175	380	593	100	180
187,230	424,221
214,710	458,708
257,811	549,119	1,180	1,852	140	214	200	320
191,100	423,426	700	1,050	560	848
194,940	387,528	920	1,424
414,322	851,068	2,060	3,058	240	358
456,205	1,198,136	8,625	17,477	4,220	10,554	1,970	3,650	720	1,409
369,770	980,191	14,870	29,740	11,000	26,365	2,980	6,360	80	192
251,750	770,484	18,035	41,235	1,588	4,367	1,460	4,161	1,940	3,960	800	1,920	300	750
290,165	1,003,711	11,530	32,892	3,200	6,760	5,300	11,960	4,220	8,691
136,910	410,586	17,750	58,632	100	350	320	1,088	1,720	4,426	347	1,020
376,105	1,319,184	19,775	52,285	1,402	4,374	30,200	94,750	8,268	20,259	700	1,840
566,107	1,938,820	31,440	86,422	1,080	3,338	11,480	37,300	5,500	14,594	3,180	9,206
625,982	2,154,207	9,730	27,244	260	780	2,560	7,936	13,560	35,662	3,380	9,912
1,101,765	3,910,916	14,050	41,112	7,810	23,430	34,900	107,780	9,250	24,318	20,630	88,890	1,680	4,200
426,113	1,534,007	13,990	42,090	1,496	4,798	15,400	52,420	2,230	6,244	16,710	50,130	270	756
980,001	3,528,003	150	480	100	300	7,580	26,530	10,100	30,300	54,473	157,419	30	90

No. 5.

YARN, 1892-1901.

INDIAN.		JAPANESE.		CHINESE.	
Piculs.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Piculs.	Value, Hk. Tn.	Piculs.	Value, Hk. Tn.
112,194	1,985,993	249	3,890
110,484	1,953,095	249	3,890
97,014	1,620,676	405	6,075
37,668	664,294	2,434	36,510	75	1,350
157,867	3,094,752	1,158	22,416	30	600
140,276	2,593,628	17,918	305,611	4,560	77,888
137,373	2,807,573	14,343	298,249	10,476	209,420
210,363	4,793,094	42,433	982,438	14,547	327,090
32,799	820,623	8,861	230,390	1,474	35,502
164,447	3,946,711	17,524	455,598	10,809	259,425

APPENDIX No. 6.

EXPORT OF BEANCAKE, BEAN OIL, AND BEANS, WITH DECENNIAL AVERAGES, 1872-1901.

YEAR.	BEANCAKE.		BEAN OIL.		BEANS.	
	Piculs.	Value, Hk. Ta.	Piculs.	Value, Hk. Ta.	Piculs.	Value, Hk. Ta.
1872.....	657,944	433,799	41,644	154,582	1,235,873	1,151,359
1873.....	554,160	357,774	20,028	63,976	1,005,366	832,428
1874.....	759,399	471,970	25,501	58,530	1,102,276	843,937
1875.....	1,007,401	681,431	11,640	27,025	1,740,199	1,506,649
1876.....	760,914	557,909	4,915	18,447	1,420,961	1,513,647
1877.....	792,166	712,067	4,947	19,367	1,439,062	1,657,499
1878.....	1,924,968	1,536,798	3,287	12,697	2,156,064	1,961,489
1879.....	1,800,523	1,366,098	11,630	41,846	1,853,444	1,744,143
1880.....	1,350,918	900,475	26,935	69,524	2,120,819	1,749,384
1881.....	1,443,313	923,377	22,532	56,883	2,261,067	1,822,062
TOTAL.....	11,051,706	7,941,698	173,059	522,877	16,335,131	14,782,597
AVERAGE, 1872-81	1,105,171	794,170	17,306	52,288	1,633,513	1,478,260
1882.....	1,613,464	1,099,930	20,626	57,525	2,069,152	1,803,827
1883.....	1,715,695	1,175,300	17,284	50,092	2,342,995	2,016,535
1884.....	1,875,999	1,345,955	20,571	70,712	2,101,690	1,865,236
1885.....	1,804,720	1,227,596	10,557	32,023	2,561,577	2,317,228
1886.....	1,480,048	1,196,077	926	2,088	1,808,873	1,937,260
1887.....	2,031,348	1,617,921	3,738	10,044	2,595,993	2,379,579
1888.....	1,865,384	1,495,014	13,837	40,414	2,651,067	2,822,532
1889.....	1,893,333	1,686,814	56,938	234,737	1,916,877	2,065,673
1890.....	2,623,718	2,137,100	32,285	145,244	2,811,345	2,787,762
1891.....	3,063,860	2,277,459	93,010	321,895	4,157,538	3,763,934
TOTAL.....	19,967,569	15,259,166	269,772	675,674	25,107,077	23,759,566
AVERAGE, 1882-91	1,996,757	1,525,917	26,977	67,567	2,510,708	2,375,957
1892.....	2,818,804	2,160,032	120,961	399,784	4,169,988	3,936,288
1893.....	2,327,214	2,327,215	89,085	345,365	3,339,826	4,392,648
1894.....	2,600,241	2,399,112	73,208	285,301	3,736,141	3,991,883
1895.....	791,830	786,124	32,996	140,779	2,905,386	3,052,235
1896.....	2,724,020	3,211,892	88,403	434,494	3,835,860	5,808,978
1897.....	3,306,851	4,243,176	75,118	492,515	3,872,841	6,637,370
1898.....	3,695,821	5,828,715	108,323	648,312	4,220,963	14,233,085
1899.....	4,381,406	6,711,364	159,883	1,000,193	4,711,026	8,974,435
1900.....	2,912,234	3,947,992	224,406	1,288,729	2,517,823	4,406,428
1901.....	4,331,500	7,017,028	209,187	1,422,632	3,533,844	7,649,186
TOTAL.....	29,949,921	38,632,650	1,181,570	6,458,104	36,843,698	63,682,536
AVERAGE, 1892-1901	2,994,992	3,863,265	118,157	645,810	3,684,370	6,368,254

Estimates only.

APPENDIX No. 7.

AVERAGE PRICES OF BEANS, BEANCAKE, AND BEAN OIL, 1892-1901.

YEAR.	BEANS (per 300 Catties).	BEANCAKE (per 10 Pieces).	BEAN OIL (per 100 Catties).
	Newchwang Ta.	Newchwang Ta.	Newchwang Ta.
1892.....	3.09	3.99	3.59
1893.....	3.55	4.59	3.82
1894.....	3.11	4.29	3.82
1895.....	3.84	4.69	4.18
1896.....	4.42	5.52	4.87
1897.....	5.11	6.04	6.38
1898.....	5.80	7.19	5.94
1899.....	5.69	7.47	6.19
1900.....	5.41	7.20	6.12
1901.....	5.87	7.18	6.18
AVERAGE PRICES, 1892-1901....	4.59	5.82	5.11

APPENDIX No. 8.

AVERAGE RATES OF EXCHANGE BETWEEN TIAO, NEWCHWANG TAELS, AND
HAIKWAN TAELS, 1892-1901.

YEAR.	Newchwang Ta. =	Hk. Ta. =
	Tiao.	Tiao.
1892.....	10.438	11.325
1893.....	10.523	11.417
1894.....	9.312	10.104
1895.....	8.230	8.930
1896.....	8.315	9.022
1897.....	8.144	8.836
1898.....	8.131	8.822
1899.....	8.246	8.947
1900.....	8.978	9.741
1901.....	8.752	9.496
AVERAGE, 1892-1901.....	8.907	9.664
AVERAGE, 1882-91.....	9.855	10.693

APPENDIX No. 9.

SHIPPING: PER-CENTAGES UNDER THE VARIOUS FLAGS, 1892-1901.

FLAG.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
British.....	49.55	51.74	47.30	50.37	53.90	49.79	38.98	36.76	38.48	41.80
American.....	0.79	...	0.67	0.38	0.11	0.40	0.60	0.42	0.38	2.23
German.....	25.14	25.09	32.87	23.20	15.98	16.07	10.60	8.33	10.47	9.21
French.....	0.46	...	0.12
Dutch.....	0.82	0.22	0.27	1.32	...	0.67	0.60
Danish.....	1.56	0.13	...	0.25	0.50
Swedish.....
Norwegian.....	3.64	2.74	6.87	18.00	12.36	6.31	7.85	4.03	4.24	0.22
Russian.....	0.22	0.49	0.24	0.38	0.54	0.20	0.42	1.62	0.60	0.39
Austrian.....	0.30	1.05
Japanese.....	6.65	6.20	8.21	1.69	8.63	11.76	24.39	34.29	40.64	42.95
Chinese.....	13.19	13.52	3.57	3.10	7.89	14.80	16.19	14.05	4.89	0.61
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

APPENDIX No. 10.

RAINFALL, 1892-1901.

MONTH.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
January.....	0.03	0.24	...	0.06	0.09
February.....	0.51	0.15	0.10	0.15	...
March.....	0.46	...	0.53	0.28	0.22	0.50	0.87	0.64	0.50	0.13
April.....	...	0.68	1.40	1.02	1.06	2.69	0.20	0.11	1.64	0.65
May.....	0.35	3.15	2.00	0.82	2.26	0.68	0.04	1.51	0.75	1.48
June.....	1.67	4.54	5.45	1.59	2.36	1.75	3.80	2.88	0.89	1.09
July.....	1.78	8.06	16.57	3.46	7.26	4.25	8.18	1.99	6.89	2.41
August.....	6.77	1.97	5.82	7.01	4.99	4.69	1.94	3.86	4.24	18.55
September.....	0.29	2.88	2.70	2.55	3.16	1.41	1.95	1.92	4.46	1.04
October.....	1.16	1.50	0.34	0.50	1.89	0.75	2.46	1.10
November.....	0.39	0.53	...	0.85	0.55	0.41	2.23	0.35
December.....	0.65	0.39	0.30	0.09	...	0.03	0.05	0.19
TOTAL.....	12.87	23.31	35.46	18.98	24.05	17.25	17.37	13.04	24.32	27.17

APPENDIX No. 11.

DATES OF OPENING AND CLOSING OF PORT, ETC., 1892-1901.

YEAR.	ICE BROKE UP.	FIRST STEAMER ARRIVED.	STEAMERS WORKING FREELY.	DURING WINTER.		LOWEST TEMPERA- TURE, AND DATE.	MAXIMUM THICKNESS OF ICE, AND DATE.	FIRST APPEAR- ANCE OF DRIFT ICE.	LAST STEAMER LEFT.	RIVER PERMAN- ENTLY SET.
				River frozen over.	Navigation suspended.					
1892.....	Apr. 1	Apr. 3	Apr. 5	129	131	Jan. 20 - 9°	Mar. 2 32½	Nov. 24	Nov. 25	Dec. 13.
1893.....	Mar. 26	Mar. 26	Mar. 31	103	120	Feb. 8 - 21°	Feb. 22 38	" 17	" 23	Jan. 3, '94.
1894.....	" 13	" 15	" 24	69	111	Jan. 13 - 16°	" 27 30	" 28	" 30	Dec. 29.
1895.....	" 31	Apr. 4	Apr. 4	92	124	Feb. 1 - 12°	" 12 35	Dec. 8	" 25	" 11.
1896.....	" 27	Mar. 28	Mar. 31	107	123	" 13 0°	Jan. 29 26	Nov. 30	" 24	Jan. 15, '97.
1897.....	" 16	" 19	" 21	60	114	" 6 - 4°	Feb. 11 20	" "	" 26	Dec. 14.
1898.....	Apr. 1	Apr. 1	Apr. 6	108	125	Dec. 29 + 2°	Mar. 2 23½	Dec. 13	Dec. 19	Jan. 21, '99.*
1899.....	Mar. 12	Mar. 17	Mar. 17	50	87	Jan. 16 - 6°	Feb. 13 17	" 8	" 4	Dec. 24.
1900.....	" 23	" 25	" 29	89	110	" 17 - 12°	Mar. 6 24	" 1	Nov. 28	Jan. 31, '01.†
1901.....	" 8	" 17	" 19	36	108	Dec. 20 - 11°	Feb. 13 14	" 2	Dec. 1	Dec. 27.

* River fast on 31st December 1898 but broke up again on 3rd January 1899.
† River partly fast on 18th January but broke completely open on 24th January 1901.

APPENDIX No. 12.

GROWTH OF THE ROMAN CATHOLIC MISSION, 1892-1901.

YEAR.	ROMAN CATHOLIC POPULA- TION.	BAPTISMS.			CLERGY.			CATHOLIC CHURCHES AND CHAPELS.	SEMINARIES.	STUDENTS.	SCHOOLS AND ORPHANAGES.	SCHOLARS.
		Pagans.	Child- ren of Christi- ans.	Pagans Children at the point of death.	Bishops.	French Priests.	Chinese Priests.					
1892.....	15,075	535	720	6,834	1	27	5	10	152	2	42	111
1893.....	15,825	662	779	6,752	1	29	7	10	153	3	48	109
1894.....	16,844	852	708	5,184	1	30	8	30	153	3	48	109
1895.....	18,061	1,290	781	5,651	1	30	9	35	153	3	47	106
1896.....	19,189	1,529	659	6,610	1	32	9	35	153	3	49	132
1897.....	22,149	3,180	816	7,198	2	31	12	175	72	3	55	192
1898.....	25,000	4,006	780	8,262	2	34	12	175	72	3	56	209
1899.....	28,050	4,027	510	8,150	1	23	8	115	45	2	49	159
1900.....	N. 7,392	736	360	684	1	14	4	32	27	1	20	60
1901.....	S. 17,500	3,000	(?)	(?)	1	15	4	(?)	(?)	2	35	82
	N. 8,983	1,154	412	871	1	10	3	82	(?)	2	35	82
	S. 17,000	104	283	1,624	1	15	4	(?)	13	1	25	27

* The discrepancy between 1896 and previous years is due to the fact that places of worship which the missionaries visited only once a year were no longer counted as chapels.
† In 1899 the Mission was divided into the provinces of Moukden for the South, and the provinces of Kirin and Taitshar for the North.
‡ The figures for 1900 and 1901 are approximate. There are still some districts which the Foreign missionaries have not been able to re-enter.
The Mission of the South lost in the massacres of 1900: 1 Bishop, 7 French priests, 3 Chinese priests, 2 European sisters, and about 2,000 Native Christians. Figures concerning the Northern Mission for 1901 are not obtainable here.

CHEFOO.

DECENNIAL REPORT, 1892-1901.

(a.) REVIEW OF THE PAST DECADE.—In reviewing the past decade the following are the most noticeable features immediately affecting Chefoo:—

1°. The increase in every division of trade. The demand for Foreign Imports has steadily increased, while their silver value is more than heretofore. Japanese Yarn, which first came here in 1891 but did not seem to find a market, is imported in larger quantities than either English or Indian. Refined Sugar, first imported in 1895, is in great demand, being cheap and of good quality. Figured Piece Goods are coming to the fore, as they are now made to suit the Native taste. Shanghai Mill products, first imported in 1891, have increased.

There are two instead of one "filanda" driven by steam, and 12 Native-owned Silk manufactories using the same pattern of machinery as in the steam "filandas" but worked by hand, in the place of *nîl* in 1891.

The copper cash value of the Haikwan tael still continues to fall.

Weihaiwei and Port Arthur are no longer Chinese naval stations.

The opening to trade of Port Arthur, Talienwan (Dalny, 青泥窪), Weihaiwei, and Kiaochow, and the plying of steamers of Foreign type to "inland places," have all helped towards the present increase of trade. The opening of "inland waters" to steam traffic has facilitated the transport of goods, to the detriment of the junk trade. In 1891 the *s.s. Kwangchi* was the only steamer trading at these places; to-day there are no less than 20.

2°. The abnormal floods of the Yellow River in 1892, 1893, and 1898.

3°. The opening of a wine factory, under Foreign supervision, in 1893.

4°. The outbreak of hostilities between China and Japan in 1894. In February 1895 the theatre of war was brought close to Chefoo: eastwards the country was occupied by Japanese soldiers, while westwards it was overrun with Chinese soldiers hastening to the front. The Japanese captured Port Arthur in 1894 and Weihaiwei and Liu-kung-tao in 1895.

5°. The construction, in 1896 and 1897, of a public Bund and jetties by the Chinese Government, under the Foreign Customs supervision. The Bund fronts the property of Foreign owners; its length is 2,174 feet. The total area reclaimed, including streets, Bund, jetties, and building lots, is about 42 *mou*.

6°. The lease to the Germans of Kiaochow in 1897, and to the Russians of Port Arthur and to the British of Weihaiwei in 1898.

7°. The establishment of the United States Consulate in 1896, and of the French and Russian Vice-Consulates in 1898.

8°. In 1900 the Boxer rising at Ping-yüan and Yu-chêng, which spread afterwards to the province of Chihli and the city of Peking, causing the murder of the German Minister, the taking of the Taku Forts by the Allies, the siege of Peking, and, after its relief, the flight of the Empress Dowager and Emperor to Shensi.

9°. The opening at Chefoo, in 1900, of a branch of the Joint Telegraph Companies.

10°. The connexion by submarine cable of this port with Shanghai, Tientsin, Port Arthur, Weihaiwei, and Kiaochow in 1900.

11°. The opening of a German post office, telephone, and telegraph office in 1900.

12°. The handing over, in 1901, of the management of the Chefoo Native Customs to the Commissioner of Customs.

13°. The alteration, in November 1901, of the Tariff on Foreign Imports to an effective 5 per cent. Duty.

14°. The establishment of a railroad by the Germans from Kiaochow to Wei-hsien, about 400 *li* in length. This will eventually place all traffic done by pack-mules in the hands of the railway company.

So far the prospecting for minerals has not led to any remunerative work. All the samples of gold presented to the writer so far were associated with sulphides. With the opening up of the country by railways, Shantung should be able to more than supply itself with Coal.

An examination of the Chefoo Medical Reports of the last 10 years shows that the health of the Foreign community has been excellent.

EPIDEMICS.—The summer of 1895 was very unhealthy. The mortality in July amongst the Native population was high and was occasioned mostly from bowel complaints, due principally to the consumption of unripe and damaged melons, as well as to the very inferior quality of the water supply, the Native town being entirely dependent for its water upon shallow surface wells, all of which are probably contaminated with sewage and filth of every description. The mortality was so high and deaths occurred so speedily as to suggest Asiatic cholera; however, the cases were nearly all of a non-specific character, choleraic diarrhoea, dysentery, and the like. Amongst the crews of the several men-of-war in port at the time a severe outbreak of the same complaints occurred.

In the spring of 1896 an outbreak of malarial fever amongst the Native population prevailed. This was due to the extensive turning up of long undisturbed ground consequent upon roadmaking and building operations.

(b.) CHANGES IN TRADE.—The total value of trade, excluding Re-exports, during the last 10 years, and the conversion of the value of the trade into sterling at the average rate of exchange for each year, was:—

YEAR.	NET TOTAL VALUE.		NET FOREIGN IMPORTS.	NET NATIVE IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
	Hk.Ta.	£ Sterling.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1892.....	13,329,147	at 4s. 4½d. = £2,901,866	44.07	17.15	38.78
1893.....	13,067,115	" 3s. 11½d. = £2,572,588	37.04	19.13	43.83
1894.....	14,778,676	" 3s. 2½d. = £2,363,049	39.22	16.32	44.46
1895.....	17,495,041	" 3s. 3½d. = £2,861,168	41.82	15.88	42.30
1896.....	19,533,953	" 3s. 4d. = £3,255,659	50.07	17.65	32.28
1897.....	22,051,976	" 2s. 11½d. = £3,284,825	50.18	14.82	35.00
1898.....	26,238,774	" 2s. 10½d. = £3,785,490	55.43	15.37	29.20
1899.....	28,153,956	" 3s. 0½d. = £4,237,757	43.58	19.85	36.57
1900.....	27,058,328	" 3s. 1½d. = £4,199,678	40.97	20.59	38.44
1901.....	37,660,510	" 2s. 11½d. = £5,580,424	51.13	17.35	31.52

This table shows that trade has been increasing.

The following list gives the new articles of trade first imported exceeding Hk.Ta. 1,000 in value:—

In 1892:—

Agar-agar.
Untrimmed Palm-leaf Fans.
Liquid Indigo.
White Lead.
Machinery.
Nutmegs.
Umbrellas.

In 1893:—

Dutch Drills.
Japanese Cotton Yarn.
Black Sharks Fins.

In 1894:—

Indian T-Cloths.
Japanese T-Cloths.
" Towels.
" Cotton Cloth.
" " Crapes.
Dried Crab Flesh.
Japanese Matchea.
" Umbrellas.

In 1895:—

Indian Drills.
Japanese Drills.
Indian Sheetings.
Japanese "
Blankets.
Corean Ginseng.
Various Skins (Furs).
Refined Sugar.

In 1896:—

Japanese Handkerchiefs.
Cotton Cord.
Woollen Yarn.
Llama Braid.
Fancy Buttons.
Cement.
Japanese Oil.

In 1897:—

Japanese Cotton Flannel.
" Bed Covers.
Cow Hides.
Looking-glasses and Mirrors.
Japanese Silk and Cotton Mixtures.

In 1898:—

Fancy Boxes.
Japanese Arrowroot Flour.
" Artificial Flowers.
Glassware.
Hair Nets.
Foreign Hams.
Lace.
Sumatra Kerosene Oil.
Rice.

In 1899:—

Cotton Blankets.
Galvanized Iron.
Dried Clams and Cockles.
Engine Oil.

In 1900:—

Bags and Purses.
Japanese Flour.

In 1901:—

Silk Plushes.
Roofing Paper.
Silk and Cotton Ribbons.
Foreign Soda.
Imitation Gold and Silver Thread.

The Trade with Corea has increased; the net total value of the trade in 1891 was Hk.Ta. 99,461, that in 1901, Hk.Ta. 608,645.

Trade with Japan.—Since the war with Japan the direct trade with this port has largely increased. This increase is entirely due to the study of the requirements of the Shantung market by the Japanese merchants. The value of the trade with Japan in 1891 was Hk.Ta. 140,551; in 1901 it was Hk.Ta. 6,035,924.

Principal Foreign Imports.—The diagram (No. 1) opposite shows the course of the principal staples of Foreign import from 1892 to 1901. To show the proportion that goods bear to the total value of trade, each class is represented by its yearly value. Cotton Piece Goods and Cotton Yarn are far the greatest contributors to the value of Imports. Taking the different Cotton Piece Goods separately, Grey Shirtings, the principal factor, fluctuates between 204,000 and 306,000 pieces annually; in 1898, the year of their largest importation, they rose 50,271 pieces above 1891; in 1900 they fell 50,000 pieces, on account of the unsettled state of the country. Dyed Shirtings, Figured Sheetings, and T-Cloths were not so much in demand and fell gradually. Japanese T-Cloths rose yearly from 1894, the time of their first appearance. English Drills have fallen, to give place to the American production; the same remark applies to Sheetings. Towels are largely in use, their importation rose from 36,519 dozen in 1891 to 103,000 dozen in 1901. Cotton Yarn, the next in importance to Cotton Piece Goods, has found a splendid market. English and Indian Cotton Yarn had to give place to Japanese; the increased importation in this last variety is shown in the table given below:—

1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.
...	80	2,426	7,972	19,546	86,256	182,344	131,101	76,201	146,963

The reasons for the Chinese preference of Japanese Yarn to English and Indian are:—

- 1°. The thread of the Japanese Yarn is twisted to the *right*, in the same way as Chinese Yarn, and therefore adapted to the Native cloth-weavers loom; that of the other Yarns is twisted to the *left*.
- 2°. The Japanese Yarn is of a much whiter colour and the thread equal in thickness; as a result, cloth woven from it is said to be superior to that woven from Indian Yarn, which is darker in colour and varies in thickness.
- 3°. The packing seems to have been purposely adapted to suit the transportation into the interior by pack-mules; it saves both money and trouble in the repacking of bales which is necessary in the handling of English and Indian Yarns, for the bales of the latter are larger and heavier.
- 4°. Japan being much nearer China than England or India, merchants orders for particular Yarns are able to be carried out in the right time to suit the market.

The present market value of English Cotton Yarn is *Hk.Tta* 33 per picul; Japanese, *Hk.Tta* 28 per picul for 1st quality, *Hk.Tta* 26 per picul for 2nd quality, and *Hk.Tta* 24 per picul for 3rd quality; Indian, *Hk.Tta* 25 per picul.

The Japanese Cotton Yarn is a mixture of American and Japanese cotton, Indian Cotton Yarn is, of course, from Indian cotton, and English Cotton Yarn is all American cotton.

Metals participated greatly in the increase of Foreign staples. The greater part of the value of Metals goes to Old Iron (*Hk.Tta* 282,570 in 1901).

Woollen Goods are uncertain: they rise and fall according to the demand; they are not popular, owing to their being expensive and not suitable to the extreme cold experienced in the north of China.

Kerosene Oil is nearly on a level in value of importation with Metals. The following table shows the quantity of the different kinds imported:—

—	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>
American Kerosene Oil	1,056,580	2,253,870	1,833,790	1,967,900	2,388,250	5,281,060	4,500,060	3,342,890	4,627,852	8,658,334
Russian " "	610,000	243,000	577,800	109,940	401,150	216,490	140,000
Sumatra " "	142,000
Japanese " "	2,200	3,000	6,920

American Flour rose from a value of *Hk.Tta* 2,984 in 1891 to *Hk.Tta* 1,135,397 in 1901.

Matches show a marked improvement during the decade; European Matches have had to give way to Japanese Matches, owing to the cheapness of the latter.

Transit Trade with Chinkiang.—Foreign goods which enter Shantung under Transit Pass *via* Chinkiang do not seem to affect the Imports at Chefoo.

DIAGRAM No 1.

YEARLY VALUE OF PRINCIPAL FOREIGN IMPORTS, 1892-1901.

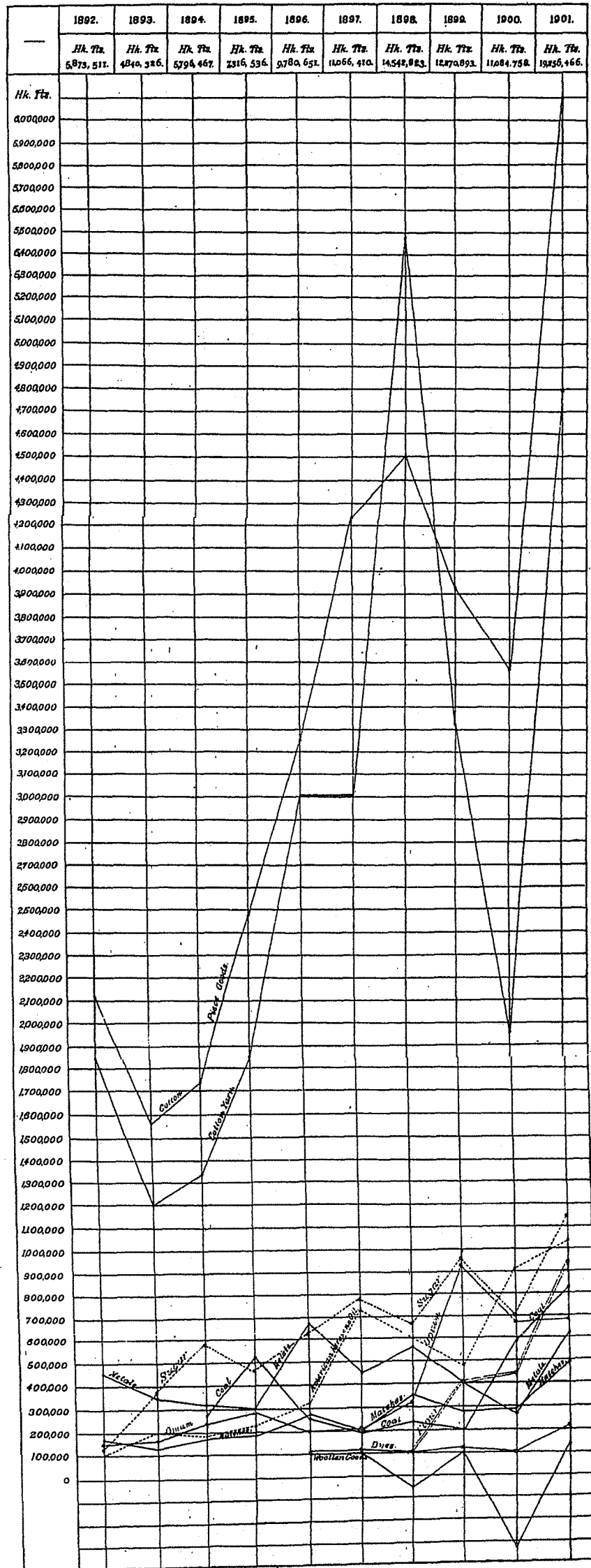
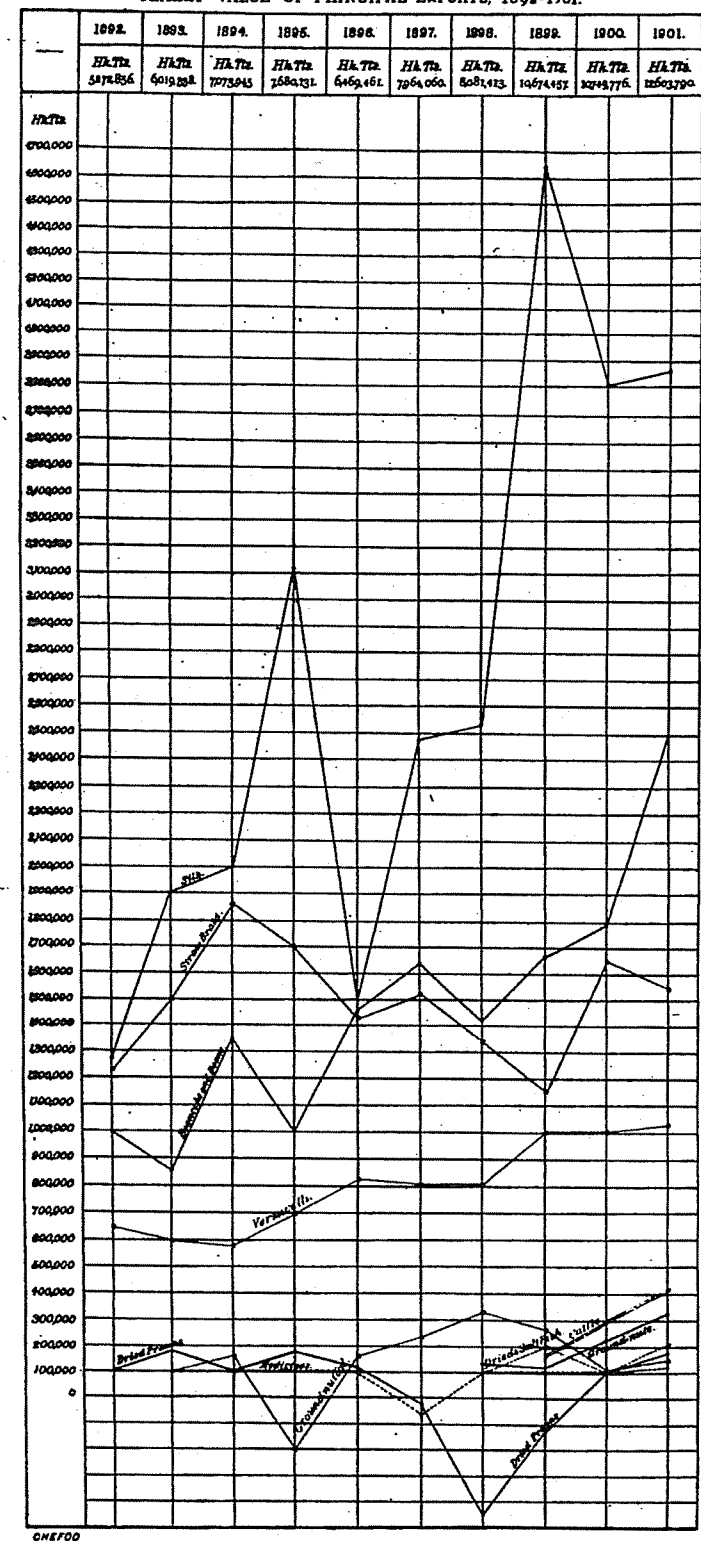


DIAGRAM No.2.

YEARLY VALUE OF PRINCIPAL EXPORTS, 1892-1901.



Native Imports.—The total value of Native Imports for each year was:—

1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
<i>Hk. Tn</i>	<i>Hk. Tn</i>	<i>Hk. Tn</i>	<i>Hk. Tn</i>	<i>Hk. Tn</i>	<i>Hk. Tn</i>	<i>Hk. Tn</i>	<i>Hk. Tn</i>	<i>Hk. Tn</i>	<i>Hk. Tn</i>
2,286,496	2,500,111	2,412,471	2,777,528	3,448,322	3,268,153	4,033,319	5,587,335	5,579,863	6,533,043

The principal Native Imports are Sugar, Paper, Silk and Silk Piece Goods, Raw Cotton, Wood Oil, and Grasscloth. Shanghai Mill products imported in 1891 and 1901 were as follows:—

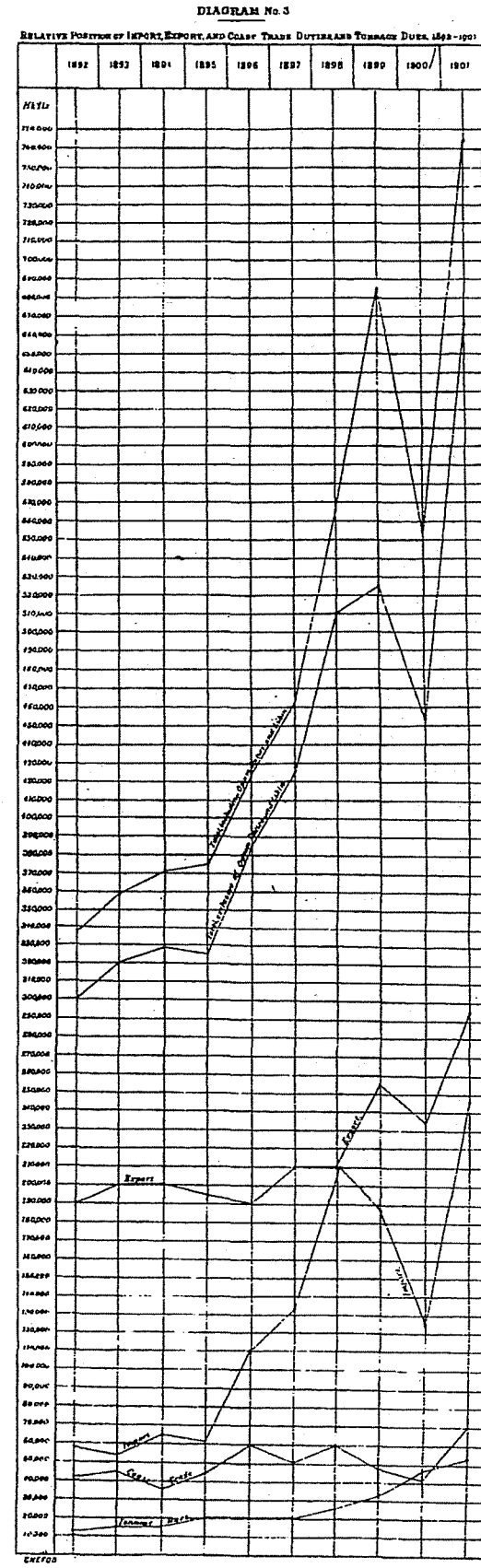
1891.	1901.
Ginned Cotton . . <i>Piculs</i> 1,325	Drills <i>Pieces</i> 615
Cotton Yarn " 618	Sheetings " 1,800
	Cotton Yarn . . <i>Piculs</i> 30,353

Native Exports.—The diagram (No. 2) opposite shows the value of the principal Exports from 1892 to 1901. Silk is the most important staple, its value represents nearly half the total value of Exports. Silk varies greatly from year to year, being dependent on the crop. On the whole, its upward tendency proves that its cultivation has increased considerably during the decade; its value also has risen, owing to more careful manufacture. The following table shows the variations in export:—

DESCRIPTION.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>
Silk, Raw, White.....	29	27	31	253	24	83	65	306	271	225
" " Yellow	1,781	3,208	2,250	3,369	734	1,943	1,885	8,659	3,377	3,281
" " Wild (reeled by hand) ..	2,829	2,353	2,970	6,492	2,876	4,195	4,635	5,259	7,737	8,219
" " (reeled by steam) ..				161	198	496	529	490	394	215
" Cocoons, Pierced.....	27	327	268	300	62
" Refuse	3,721	8,198	3,665	5,646	4,480	7,162	8,328	11,455	8,748	7,406
" Piece Goods.....	5	11	70	100	189	212	145	56	102	244
" Pongees	3,366	3,179	3,023	2,753	2,656	2,259	2,176	2,931	2,588	3,311
TOTAL	11,758	17,303	12,277	19,074	11,219	16,350	17,763	29,156	23,217	22,901

The largest export of Straw Braid took place in 1894; since then and up to 1899 it has gradually gone down. This is due to the lack of care and honesty in the plaiting and to Japanese competition.

The export of Beans and Beancake to Native ports and to Japan has steadily increased, nearly reaching in 1901 to the value of *Tn* 2,500,000.



Vermicelli, which is exported in large quantities to the South, Hongkong, and the Straits, has steadily gone up.

Division of Trade.—The prosperous merchants in this port are Swatow men; they do a very flourishing trade. Those who possess big capital have their own firms and trade between Swatow and Chefoo on their own account; others, who only possess small capital, have agencies in Swatow. Amoy people who trade here are called Foochow merchants; they used to trade between Formosa and Chefoo, but since the cession of Formosa to Japan their trade is decreasing. The number of Canton merchants is decreasing, the reason being that most Shantung merchants have their own branch hongks in Hongkong and trade on their own account.

(c.) REVENUE.—The following table shows the total Revenue for each year since 1892:—

YEAR.	TOTAL COLLECTION.	INCREASE OR DECREASE.	TOTAL COLLECTION CONVERTED INTO STERLING.	INCREASE OR DECREASE.	TOTAL COLLECTION, MINUS LIKIN.	INCREASE OR DECREASE.	TOTAL COLLECTION MINUS OPIUM DUTIES AND LIKIN.	INCREASE OR DECREASE.
	Hk. Pn.	Hk. Pn.	£ Sterling.	Hk. Pn.	Hk. Pn.	Hk. Pn.	Hk. Pn.	Hk. Pn.
1892.....	337,535.2.9.9	13,388.7.1.5	at 4s. 4½d. = £ 73,484	6,202	312,692.0.9.9	15,071.5.1.5	303,369.8.9.9	15,819.2.6.5
1893.....	358,199.7.3.3	20,664.4.3.4	" 3s. 11½d. = £ 70,521	2,963	331,078.7.3.3	18,388.6.3.4	320,895.6.7.0	17,525.7.7.1
1894.....	372,371.3.8.8	14,171.6.5.5	" 3s. 2½d. = £ 59,540	10,981	339,295.0.8.8	8,216.3.5.5	326,891.4.7.5	5,985.8.0.5
1895.....	374,482.0.6.8	2,110.6.8.0	" 3s. 3½d. = £ 61,243	1,703	338,154.4.6.8	1,140.6.2.0	324,518.3.9.3	2,373.0.8.2
1896.....	426,864.1.5.1	52,382.0.8.3	" 3s. 4d. = £ 71,144	9,901	398,365.7.5.1	60,211.2.8.3	386,750.5.5.1	62,232.1.5.8
1897.....	461,279.6.3.8	34,414.4.8.7	" 2s. 11½d. = £ 68,711	2,433	435,667.0.3.8	37,301.2.8.7	425,754.0.8.8	39,003.5.3.7
1898.....	566,582.2.0.6	105,302.5.6.8	" 2s. 10½d. = £ 81,741	13,030	526,750.2.0.6	91,083.1.6.8	511,762.6.0.6	88,008.5.1.8
1899.....	681,692.9.4.6	115,110.7.4.0	" 3s. 0½d. = £ 102,604	20,863	568,421.3.4.6	42,071.1.4.0	525,889.8.5.5	14,127.2.4.9
1900.....	556,862.1.1.0	124,830.8.3.6	" 3s. 1½d. = £ 86,430	16,174	482,476.5.1.0	85,944.8.3.6	454,543.3.0.0	71,346.5.5.5
1901.....	764,999.5.9.7	208,137.4.8.7	" 2s. 11½d. = £ 113,355	26,925	691,539.5.9.7	208,063.0.8.7	663,742.8.8.7	209,199.5.8.7

Note.—The figures in black type show the increase.

Leaving out the year 1900, it is seen that the Revenue has steadily increased from year to year, the collection for 1901 beating that of all previous years by a respectable amount. For the sake of more accurate comparison and explaining the apparent increase in the Revenue, the silver figures have been converted into sterling at the average rate of exchange for each year; this shows that the Revenue has increased, notwithstanding the severe drop in exchange, by one-third if we compare the Revenues of 1892-1901. Foreigners paid 11.36 per cent. of the total amount received during the decade.

Distribution of Revenue among the different Flags.—The following table shows the per-centage of the total Revenue under each flag for the years 1892-1901:—

FLAG.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
British	49.42	48.75	49.95	48.74	49.03	43.53	33.46	32.05	47.76	45.51
American	0.26	1.43	...	0.40	0.90	0.70	2.17	3.79
German	22.58	20.74	30.98	25.61	16.26	17.26	14.96	12.77	12.13	11.92
French	0.32	0.09	0.06
Dutch	0.01	0.15	...	0.69
Danish	0.04	...	0.32	...	0.01	...
Swedish	0.36
Norwegian	0.43	0.70	3.72	6.51	8.75	7.84	6.66	5.58	2.69	1.59
Russian	1.02	2.21	1.29	1.42	1.03	0.91	0.90	2.29	2.35	1.49
Austrian	0.07	0.19	...	0.21	0.42
Japanese	4.34	3.10	1.93	1.79	6.45	7.74	18.06	21.31	20.03	31.83
Corean	0.07	4.70	5.85	0.12	2.01	2.08
Chinese	21.95	24.50	12.05	14.16	18.05	16.72	18.89	25.18	10.76	0.95
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

The per-centage for 1901 under the Danish flag was 0.0017; under the Italian flag, 0.0007.

The British and Japanese flags together represent three-quarters of the whole Revenue. The latter has steadily increased from year to year from 4.34 per cent. in 1892 to 31.83 per cent. in 1901. The former has fluctuated a great deal and has fallen in the last few years, to the profit of the Japanese flag. There are regular lines of Japanese steamers now running from Chefoo to Japan, Corea, Vladivostock, and Tientsin. The appearance of the Corean flag in 1896 is to be noticed; those of the French and Austrian are accounted for as Government transports and mail steamers for the Tientsin and Peking troops during the occupation of those places.

Shipping.—The following table shows the number and tonnage of vessels entered and cleared from 1892-1901:—

YEAR.	STREAMERS.		SAILING VESSELS.		TOTAL.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1892.....	2,540	2,112,807	83	38,128	2,623	2,150,935
1893.....	2,403	1,997,039	66	32,634	2,469	2,029,673
1894.....	2,065	1,743,995	67	31,269	2,132	1,775,264
1895.....	1,755	1,638,855	54	30,990	1,809	1,669,845
1896.....	2,499	2,242,378	39	23,437	2,538	2,265,815
1897.....	2,560	2,370,647	31	14,654	2,591	2,385,301
1898.....	2,536	2,302,439	27	17,998	2,563	2,320,437
1899.....	3,261	2,704,112	30	22,096	3,291	2,726,208
1900.....	2,703	2,075,600	12	15,856	2,715	2,091,456
1901.....	4,990	3,486,889	8	6,220	4,998	3,493,109

From 1892 to 1899 the number and tonnage of vessels entered and cleared have fluctuated a good deal: in 1899 the rise was important; it fell in 1900, owing to the Boxer troubles, to reach its highest point in 1901, beating all previous records.

(d.) OPIUM.—Foreign.—The trade in Foreign Opium at Chefoo has varied greatly during the decade, as the following table shows:—

YEAR.	QUANTITY.	VALUE.	YEAR.	QUANTITY.	VALUE.
	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>		<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>
1892.....	310.53	150,127	1897.....	319.16	202,347
1893.....	338.96	169,412	1898.....	497.71	333,108
1894.....	413.42	244,734	1899.....	1,413.83	928,983
1895.....	454.09	279,733	1900.....	934.57	679,022
1896.....	355.73	209,483	1901.....	918.68	685,580

The average silver retail price of Foreign Opium (all kinds) since 1892 was as follows:—

1892	Ta 4.9 per catty.	1897	Ta 6.2 per catty.
1893	" 5.1 "	1898	" 6.7 "
1894	" 6.0 "	1899	" 6.5 "
1895	" 6.0 "	1900	" 7.2 "
1896	" 5.9 "	1901	" 7.5 "

The value has therefore risen 30 per cent. in silver; but if copper cash is taken as the basis, it will be found that the price has not changed much throughout the decade. In 1899, owing to the bad crop of the Native drug as compared with ordinary times, and to adulteration in its preparation by dealers, the import of Foreign Opium increased 66 per cent. Though not so large as in 1899, its importation in 1900 and 1901 was still above that of previous years. The value of the various kinds of drug during the past 10 years has been as follows: Malwa, from *Hk. Ta.* 527 to *Hk. Ta.* 737 per picul; Patna, from *Hk. Ta.* 476 to *Hk. Ta.* 720 per picul; and Benares, from *Hk. Ta.* 445 to *Hk. Ta.* 705 per picul. The present price per picul of Malwa is *Hk. Ta.* 737; Patna, *Hk. Ta.* 720; and Benares, *Hk. Ta.* 705.

The distribution of Foreign Opium throughout the province is: Chefoo, 30 per cent.; Fengtien, 20 per cent.; and the remainder, 50 per cent., for T'eng-chou (登州), Lai-chou (萊州), and Chi-nan-fu (濟南府).

Native.—The cultivation of the Native drug is gradually spreading throughout the province, and the number of smokers has doubled. Native Opium is mostly used by the poorer, and the Foreign Opium by the richer, class. When the crop of Native drug is good and its price low, the consumption of the Foreign produce decreases. The value of Native Opium varies from *Ta.* 1.70 to *Ta.* 3 per catty.

Chin-hsiang (金鄉) and Chia-hsiang (嘉祥), in Chi-ning (濟甯), T'eng-hsien (滕縣) and Ning-yang-hsien (寧陽縣), in Yen-chou (兗州), Shan-hsien (單縣) and Ts'ao-hsien (曹縣),

in Ts'ao-chou-fu (曹州府), are the chief places of Opium production, though every district grows it more or less. Szechwan and Yunnan Opium arrive by steamers, while Shensi, Shansi, and Kiangsu Opium come overland. All these varieties compete with Foreign Opium. The Native taxes levied on Shantung-grown Opium—*Lo-ti-shui*, Likin, etc., exclusive of the Export Duty collected by the Foreign Customs—amount to *Ts'ao-p'ing Ta.* 50 per picul. The yearly production is now said to be 2,000 piculs. Shantung Opium is sent to Peking, Tientsin, and Chefoo.

(e.) THE MONEY MARKET.—Before the China-Japan war, in 1894-95, the *Ts'ao-p'ing tael* was the equivalent of 1,300 to 1,400 cash; a dollar exchanged for about 930 to 940 cash, and was the equivalent of *Ts'ao-p'ing Ta.* 0.71. After the war the value of silver went down, in consequence of the amount to be paid by China, which for the time being affected the European silver market; 1902 is likely to see a further fall for the same reason. In the spring of 1897 the value fell as low as 1,020 cash to the *Ts'ao-p'ing tael* and 730 cash to the dollar; the rate rose again a little, but never realised more than 1,200 cash, and seldom as much. The scarcity of cash gives little hope for a high rate of exchange. Since 1891 the purchasing power of silver has decreased 20 per cent., both for Foreign and Native goods. The table given below shows the average rates of the Haikwan tael and dollar during the last 10 years:—

—	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Haikwan tael.....	1,617	1,553	1,521	1,404	1,362	1,330	1,217	1,235	1,270	1,221
Dollar.....	1,080	1,046	995	890	900	860	817	814	824	804

(f.) BALANCE OF TRADE.—Treating Chefoo as if it were the sole outlet of an Empire far away from China, and taking as an example the trade of 1892—the first year of the decade,—the following result is obtained:—

1892.		<i>Hk. Ta.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>
Net Foreign Imports, market value	5,873,511	Original Exports, market value	5,169,140
" Native " " "	2,286,496		
Net Imports	8,160,007		
Deduct Duties and Likin paid at Chefoo.	132,783	Add Duty paid at Chefoo	191,777
Net Imports, minus Duty	8,027,224	Exports, plus Duty	5,360,917
Deduct 7 per cent. for importers profit, etc.	561,905	Add 8 per cent. on market value for exporters profit, etc.	413,531
Imports, value at moment of landing	7,465,319	Exports, value at moment of shipment	5,774,448
Treasure imported	836,154	Treasure exported	2,766,095
TOTAL	8,301,473	TOTAL	8,540,543

Compared with 1891, the date of the last similar report, it can be seen that the population has nearly doubled. Buildings now cover a good deal of the then open spaces, having increased in number about 40 per cent.

The Native inhabitants are constantly changing; thousands of them leave the port for Port Arthur, Vladivostock, and Manchuria, where they are employed as coolies on the railroad or to collect seaweed.

The Foreign population registered at the different Consulates has increased since 1891 from 370 to 655; missionaries, many of whom reside at the inland cities, form a great part of the increase. Foreigners may be divided into 293 living in Chefoo and 362 living inland.

The number of firms of each nationality is as follows:—

American	3
British	7
French	2
German	4
Japanese	10
TOTAL	26

There were only 11 Foreign firms in 1891.

(A.) ROADS, ETC.—The Foreign quarter in Chefoo remains much in the same condition as it was 10 years ago as regards roads, but the lighting has been improved and is now maintained at the public expense; some Natives are now employed as police. The Taotai supports a police force under the immediate control of the British Consulate constable. At present there is no "Settlement" as at Shanghai, Chinkiang, Hankow, etc., under the control of the Foreign Consular Body.

With regard to the Native town, the remarks made in the "Chefoo Decennial Report, 1882-91," still hold good: no efforts have been made to improve the sanitary condition of the people, either by the making of roads or drains; and the example set by the Foreign quarter is treated with indifference. Chefoo, in and round about, in the Western meaning of the word, is without roads and without drains, and, to make matters worse, some of the streets in the city have manure dumped along the sides, while in other places human excrement is kept in heaps for sale to farmers. This disregard of health is the cause of sickness amongst Foreigners and Natives alike, as, in the spring, the dry particles of filth in the form of dust are carried in the air by the hot dry winds from the south, thus causing fevers and eye and throat troubles.

Harbour Bund.—In 1896 the Chinese authorities resumed their official proprietorship of the water front of the harbour by reclaiming the land, and building, under the supervision of the Foreign Customs, a Bund, to increase the landing and shipping facilities and to secure free and equal access to the sea for all. The work was finished in 1897. Watchmen, under the control of the Harbour Master, are appointed to keep order both on shore and at the jetties. The following are the rules agreed to by the Consular Body for the maintenance of order:—

"The South Tai-p'ing-wan is to be used for the shelter of cargo-boats in addition to the working of cargo.

"The North Tai-ping-wan is to be used as a boat harbour for the shelter of gigs and sampans, this being the purpose for which it was originally intended; cargo-boats can only be allowed to use it when actually loading or discharging, and must not take shelter there.

"A boat slip is built in the north-east corner of the North Tai-ping-wan, and gigs may be stowed in an orderly manner on the East Bund in such a way as not to interfere with the traffic or free access to the adjoining properties.

"Conspicuous marks are placed on the walls on the east side of the North Tai-ping-wan, showing a channel 30 feet wide from the North Bund wall, and sampans are not allowed at any time, and no matter what the weather, to anchor or to moor in this channel, which must be kept open for the traffic to or from steps or slip on the north side of this basin.

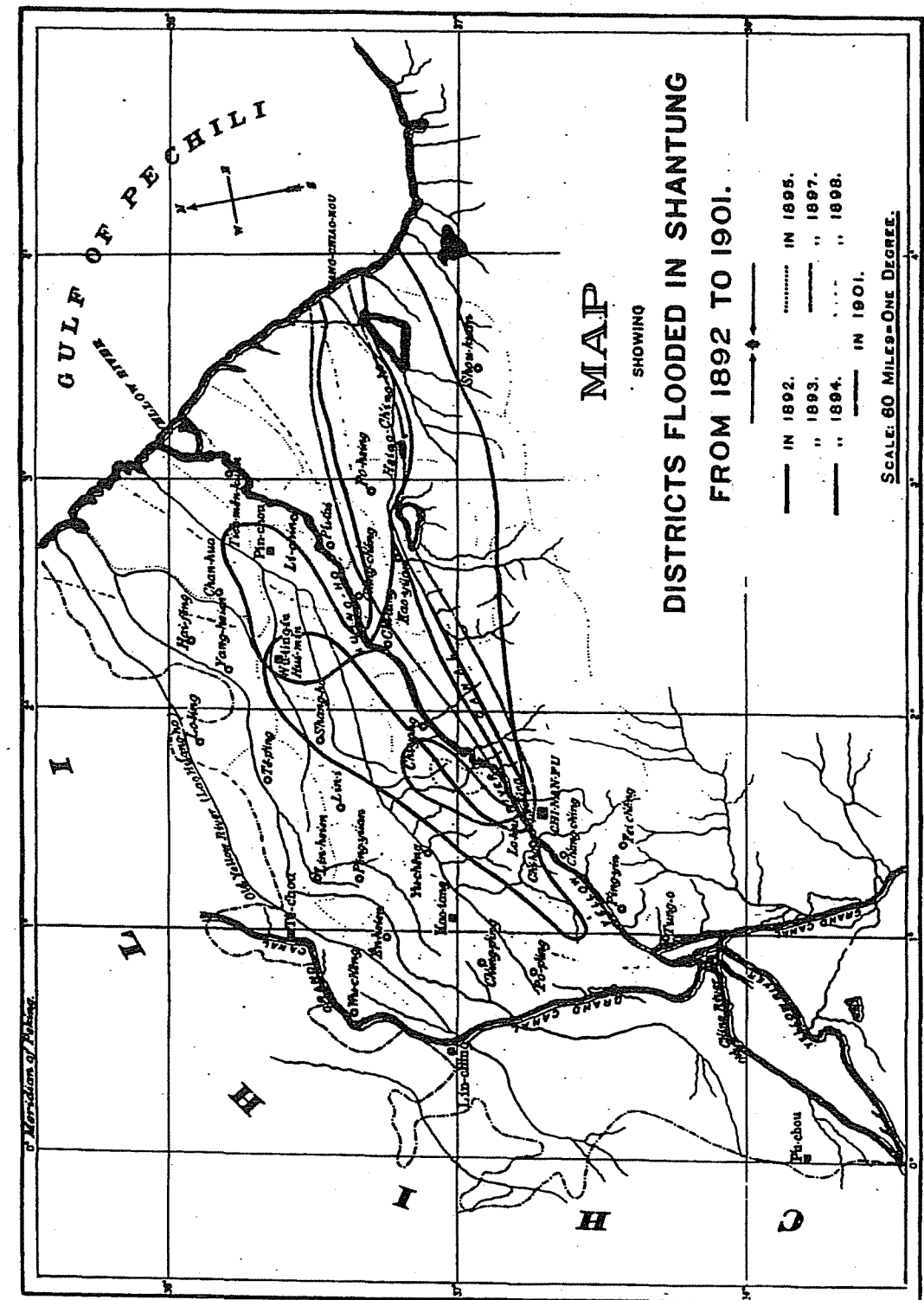
"Every effort will be made to keep this channel to the full depth designated in the original working plan sent to and approved of at Peking, viz., 13 feet 7 inches below the coping stone.

"The use of the North Tai-ping-wan as a boat harbour is rendered necessary by the need for sheltering the large number of small sampans engaged in the passenger traffic of the port, which is extensive and important, and for sheltering Foreign gigs and allowing free access to the sea in stormy weather."

The cost of maintenance-in-order is at present borne by the Foreign Customs, but it would only be just that those firms who use the Bund for the landing and shipping of cargo should pay a slight tax—as is done at Shanghai and other ports where there are Foreign Municipal Councils—towards its upkeep.

The Bund General Regulations are as follows:—

- "1. No cargo is to be stored on the Public Bund or Jetties without the Harbour Master's special permission.
- "2. Cargo-boats will be allowed to lie alongside or near the Public Bund or Jetties only while working cargo, at which time they must be properly and sufficiently manned.
- "3. Cargo-boats lying at the Public Bund or Jetties 'end on' while working must be anchored a safe distance away and approached by gangway planks.
- "4. Cargo-boats may be close alongside the Public Bund or Jetties 'broadside on' while working if they are provided with suitable fenders.
- "5. When not working, cargo-boats must on no account anchor near enough to the Public Bund or Jetties to endanger those works in the event of a gale.
- "6. Cargo-boats are always to keep clear of the landing-steps.
- "7. Native sampans plying for hire and Foreign rowing-boats are to keep clear of the landing-steps, except when actually embarking or disembarking passengers.
- "8. Damage done to the Public Bund or Jetties through carelessness or neglect in the handling of boats must be made good by the owners of the boats in fault.



"9. No nightsoil, garbage, or refuse of any kind may be thrown into the North or South Tai-p'ing-wan or elsewhere over the Bund wall, but such matter as the tide can carry off may be thrown into the sea from the outer ends of the Public Jetties. No deposits of rubbish will be allowed on the Public Bund or Jetties or on the approaches thereto.

"10. Idlers will not be allowed on the Public Bund or Jetties.

"11. No buildings, sheds, or shelters of any kind, temporary or permanent, will be permitted on the Public Bund or Jetties, nor will hawkers be allowed to set up their stalls there.

"12. The boat slip in the north-east corner of the North Tai-p'ing-wan may be used for hauling up or launching Foreign gigs, but gigs when hauled up must be stowed in an orderly manner on the East Bund in such a way as not to interfere with the traffic or free access to the adjoining properties.

"13. The Public Bund and Jetties will be under the immediate control of the Harbour Master, and all questions relating thereto should be referred to him in the first instance.

"14. The North Tai-p'ing-wan will be used as a boat harbour for the shelter of gigs and sampans. Cargo-boats are not to shelter in the North Tai-p'ing-wan; they can only use the basin when actually loading or discharging cargo. The South Tai-p'ing-wan may be used for the shelter of cargo-boats as well as for the working of cargo.

"15. Along the north wall of the North Tai-p'ing-wan from the entrance to the east wall a channel 30 feet wide is kept open for traffic to or from steps or slip. Sampans are not allowed to moor or anchor in the channel in any weather.

"16. A force of Bund Watchers is maintained under the control of the Harbour Master, to give effect to the Bund Regulations and to preserve order on the Bund and Jetties."

(4.) WATER APPROACHES TO THE PORT.—Chefoo is all but an open roadstead, and no noticeable alterations have taken place in the approaches to the port.

(5.) NEW AIDS TO NAVIGATION.—The decade has seen two new lights and one buoy established in this district, viz. :—

In 1893 a light was exhibited on the south-west slope of Laotiehshan Promontory by the Foreign Customs. The light is dioptric, first order, group flashing, and is visible in clear weather 25 miles. The keepers at this lighthouse on hearing a bell, fog horn, steam whistle, or any other sound, during foggy or thick weather, which shall indicate the proximity of a vessel, will fire 3 guns with an interval of one minute between the first and second and the second and the third. In 1897 this light passed under the control of the Russian authorities.

In 1898 a light-tower was erected by the Foreign Customs, under the British Government's administration, on the islet off Flagstaff Point (Weihaiwei). It was altered in 1900 from a dioptric sixth-order to a dioptric fourth-order occulting, and in clear weather the light is visible 12 miles.

In 1900 temporary lights of the dioptric sixth order, visible 10 miles in clear weather, were placed at Chinwangtao, near the south-western extremity of the Bluff, and at Shanhaikwan on the outer bastion of the Great Wall, immediately below the Pagoda on the No. 1 Fort. These two lights, although in the Tientsin district, are under the management of the Chefoo Customs.

In 1897 a spar-buoy was placed on the end of Kungtungtao Spit. The spar is 38 feet long, painted in red and black vertical stripes, with a small wicker cage painted black.

(k.) UNHAPPY OCCURRENCES.—*Yellow River Floods.*—During the past 10 years great damage has been wrought in this province by the Yellow River either overflowing its banks or bursting them.

In 1892 several breaks occurred, the first, in the north bank, flooding the district of Hui-min (惠民) and the department of Pin-chou (濱州), destroying the village of Wei-chia-chi (魏家集) and causing serious devastation. Then the south bank gave way in the Chi-tung district (齊東縣), flooding a strip of country 80 to 100 *li* wide and nearly 200 *li* long, the water making a course for itself to the sea in the Shou-kuang district (壽光縣). In September the river burst its south embankment 20 miles east of Chi-nan-fu (濟南府), and, uniting with the already high waters of the Hsiao-ch'ing River (小清河), flooded the different districts eastward. Near the city of Li-ch'eng (歷城縣) a break took place in the south bank, causing distress to hundreds of villages.

In 1893 a break occurred in the south side of the river extending eastward from Chi-tung (齊東縣) to Yang-chiao-kou (羊角溝) and from the river to the gulf. A heavy gale took place in November of the same year, destroying the village of Yang-chiao-kou (羊角溝) and causing the sea to be driven 60 *li* inland, submerging all the villages in its track.

In 1894, owing to the heavy rains in summer, the country south of the Yellow River was completely devastated for some thousand square miles. The banks on the western side of the river broke in many places, forming a vast lake west of the city of Li-ch'eng (歷城縣), extending more than 150 miles in length and 10 to 30 in breadth.

In 1895 a break, 1 mile wide, occurred in the river bank 100 *li* north-east of Chi-nan-fu, but not much damage was caused by this, and the following year was marked by an absence of floods.

In 1897 pack-ice caused the river to break its banks some 50 or 60 *li* north-east of Chi-nan-fu, resulting in loss of life in the submerged adjacent villages.

1898 was the year in which the floods did the most destruction during the decade; 34 districts were flooded, 11 to the south-east and 23 to the north-east of the city. The flooded

area in the south-east was estimated to be 2,600 square miles, containing perhaps 1,500 villages, while the country flooded on the north-east side was estimated to be much greater. About half of the area flooded is waste land consisting of alkali lands and marshes unfit for cultivation; but it would be safe to say that 2,500 square miles of cultivated land was subject to this overflow. In August the river burst its banks in four places, one in the north bank and three in the south, the greatest break being at Ho-t'ou-ts'un (河頭村), 7 miles long, which flooded and devastated nine districts. Owing to the terrible rainstorms during the summer in the region of Chi-nan-fu, the embankments north-west of the city gave way, flooding much of the country and damaging a great many crops. The land on both sides of the Hsiao-ch'ing River was inundated for miles, while near the site of old Chi-tung city floods swept the lowlands to the east to a width of 20 miles in places, and found an outlet at the junk port of Yang-chiao-kou, where the canal from Chi-nan-fu enters the sea. The districts Hsia-ching (夏津), Chin-hsiang (金鄉), Po-p'ing (博平), and Chih-p'ing (茌平) suffered very much from droughts, consequently 1898 was a very bad year. The charity societies of other districts took steps to relieve them and the collection of land taxes was postponed. In the same year 27 districts in T'eng-chou (登州), Lai-chou (萊州), and Ch'ing-chou (青州), I-chou prefecture (沂州府), the districts of Li-ching (利津), Chang-ch'iu (章邱), Fei-ch'eng (肥城), and Shang-ho (商河) were visited by violent storms; trees and telegraph poles were blown down and crops destroyed.

In 1899 there was much suffering from the results of the floods of the year before.

In 1900 the country was free from floods, the crops were better than for several summers past, and there was a good harvest.

In 1901 several breaks occurred during the summer. In the south bank of the Yellow River the country was under water from Chi-nan-fu to Yang-chiao-kou along the course of the Hsiao-ch'ing River canal, which was flooded four-fifths of its length by the water from the Yellow River. The whole country for over 100 miles was one vast lake. There was great distress amongst the poor, which was, to some extent, relieved by funds from abroad. The crops failed in a wide belt running north-east and south-west, of which Lin-ch'ing (臨清) was the northern boundary. This area was famine stricken and its villages deserted.

SHIPPING ACCIDENTS.—The following list shows the "total losses" of the decade:—

26th June 1892.—The Chinese s.s. *Hsinsheng* was wrecked on Alceste Island.

10th November.—The British s.s. *Chefoo*, when 12 miles to the north of Chefoo Bluff, shipped a heavy sea and washed a number of her deck passengers overboard.

23rd November.—The American barque *Escort* sprang a leak and was beached at Hu-wang-ts'un (潮汪村), where she became a total wreck.

20th April 1894.—The Japanese s.s. *Nippon Maru* was stranded in Aylen Bay and became a total wreck.

12th August 1895.—The British s.s. *Soochow* ran ashore during a dense fog, about 1 mile west-south-west of the North-East Shantung Promontory light-station, and became a total wreck.

13th November.—The Norwegian s.s. *Nanking* ran ashore to the eastward of Stick-up Rock and became a total wreck.

23rd July 1896.—The German gun-boat *Iltis* was totally lost on a rock about 9 miles north of the South-East Promontory; her captain and officers, together with 77 of her crew, were drowned.

23rd November 1897.—The British barque *Claro Babuyan* sprang a leak and had to be beached at Tahishan, Miao-tao Group, where she slipped off into deep water and sank.

7th May 1898.—The British s.s. *Amarapocora* ran on the west side of the reef at the entrance of Shih-tao Bay and became a total wreck.

8th June.—The Chinese cruiser *Foochin* parted her cable and went ashore close to Port Arthur lighthouse during a strong south-easterly gale; 150 of her crew lost their lives.

26th November.—The Chinese s.s. *Kwangchi*, whilst crossing the gulf from Ta-tung-k'ou, shipped a heavy sea and washed four of her deck passengers overboard.

15th October 1899.—The Customs light-tender *Dolphin*, whilst lying at anchor in Mylan Bay, parted both cables and drifted ashore, where she eventually had to be broken up.

1st April 1900.—The Japanese s.s. *Tokio Maru* ran ashore on Changsha, one of the islands of the Miao-tao Group, during a dense fog and became a total wreck.

11th September.—The Japanese torpedo-boat *Niji* ran ashore on Flat Rocky Point, 5 miles to the north-east of the South-East Promontory, and became a total wreck.

2nd February 1901.—The Japanese s.s. *Kikaku Maru* was totally lost during a heavy snowstorm at Chi-chia-t'ai-tzu, about 5 miles to the west of Chefoo.

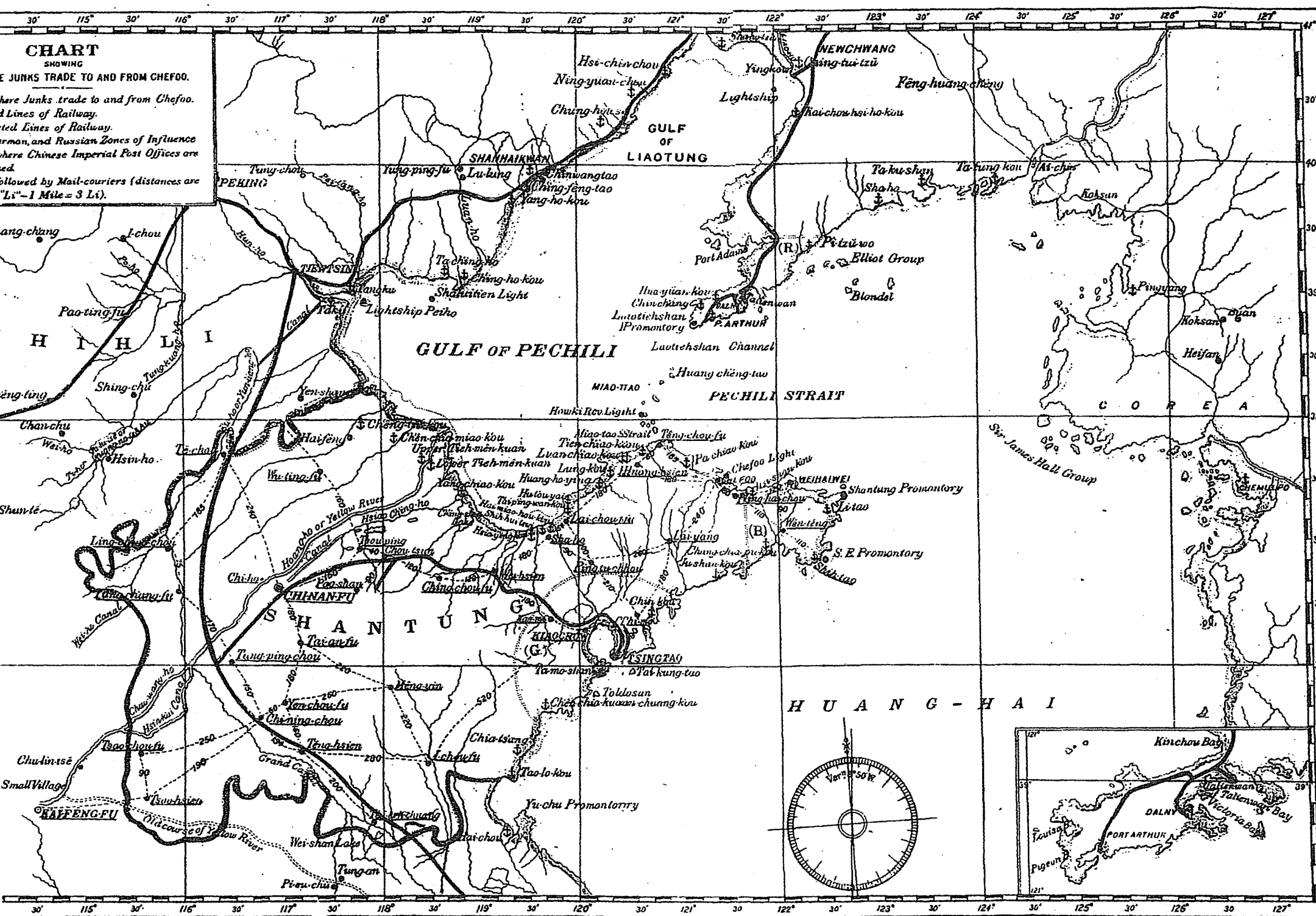
6th February.—The Japanese s.s. *Tsuto Maru* was totally lost by striking a rock about 2 miles to the north of Sang-tao Island, in latitude 37° 5' north and longitude 120° 26' east; two of her crew lost their lives.

DISTURBANCES: Boxer Movement.—The *I-ho-ch'uan* (義和拳), "Righteous Harmony Fists," commonly called "Boxers," which first made its appearance as a secret society in Shantung in 1899, is supposed to be a branch of the well-known and dreaded "White Lily Society" of old. Its origin was due, in a great measure, to Edicts of the Empress Dowager calling on the people of this province to form militia companies for local and national defence, though the large indemnities paid by China after each of her unsuccessful wars and the heavy taxes levied on the people for the payment of same, the cession of territory to Germany, France, Great Britain, and Russia, and the evil doings of some so-called Native Christians under the protection of missionaries, may have served to increase the natural hatred of the Natives for Foreigners, without distinction of nationality.

The Boxers formed into bands conducted by leaders, who claimed for this society spiritual power, and used as a basis, in order to strengthen their position, the aid of either an epileptic or a hypnotised medium, displaying wild unnatural acts and uttering strange language, every adept being assured of immunity from death or physical injury, their bodies being spiritually protected from swords and bullets.

SHOWING
LINKS TRADE TO AND FROM CHEFOO.

where Junks trade to and from Chefoo.
 2 Lines of Railway.
 2 Lines of Railway.
 German, and Russian Zones of Influence
 where Chinese Imperial Post Offices are
 used.
 followed by Mail-couriers (distances are
 "Li" - 1 Mile = 3 Li).



· NAMES OF PLACES TO WHICH CHITTOO JUNKS TRADE, SIZE
OF JUNKS, AND DESCRIPTION OF CARGO

[illegible]

LIST OF INLAND POST OFFICES IN THE CHIEFOO DISTRICT AND THE DISTANCE BETWEEN EACH

9. Yento	(鹽 石)	Ying-ha-shen	(鹽 膏)	50
10. Nig-pai-chi	(鹽 池)	Wai-tsun	(鹽 漆)	130
11. Wai-nai	(鹽 海)	Liung-shan	(鹽 山)	150
12. Liung-shan	(鹽 山)	Wen-yung	Wen-yung	150
13. Wai-shi-chai	(鹽 池)	Shih-tao	(鹽 道)	150
<hr/>				
a. Tsui	(燄 台)	Liung-shan-shen	(燄 山 膏)	50
<hr/>				
a. Tsui	(燄 石)	Tung-shan	(燄 山)	16
1. Tung-shan	(燄 山)	Hung-shan	(燄 山)	16
2. Hung-shan	(燄 山)	Liung-shan	(燄 山)	16
3. Liung-shan	(燄 山)	Shan	(燄 山)	16
4. Shan	(燄 山)	Wai-yung	(燄 山)	16
5. Wai-yung	(燄 山)	Chiung-shan	(燄 山)	16
6. Chiung-shan	(燄 山)	Tai-shan	(燄 山)	16
7. Tai-shan	(燄 山)	Wai-yung	(燄 山)	16
8. Wai-yung	(燄 山)	Yung-shan	(燄 山)	16
9. Yung-shan	(燄 山)	Tung-shan	(燄 山)	16
10. Tung-shan	(燄 山)	Chiung-shan	(燄 山)	16
11. Chiung-shan	(燄 山)	Tai-shan	(燄 山)	16

In Yu-ch'êng (禹城), Ping-yüan (平原), Chih-p'ing (在平), and Kuan-ch'êng (觀城) the *I-ho-ch'üan* joined a society of outlaws called the *Ta-tao-hui* (大刀會), "Large Knife Society," and it was at these places that the first hostilities against Native Christians commenced. At that time it would have been easy for the Government to disperse this society; but nothing was done. Indeed, further ardour was given to the movement through the notoriously anti-Foreign Yü HSIEN (毓賢) being appointed Governor of Shantung. He regarded this society as a patriotic body, and assisted it accordingly. When he was summoned to Peking, he reported to the Throne that the *I-ho-ch'üan* were not only all powerful but that they were proof against swords and bullets, and this statement was believed.

By July 1899 the society had become really powerful and was composed of a great number of people armed with broadswords and, in some cases, with firearms. Gymnastic exercises and drilling went on in hundreds of villages, and the Boxers announced their intention of rising against missionaries. This hatred of everything missionary soon developed into a hatred of everything Foreign. The Boxer leaders represented to their followers and the people that the sympathies of the Empress Dowager and the Government were with them. Their motto was "Exalt the Dynasty and kill the Foreigners:" placards to that effect were posted all over the country.

The hostilities commenced in this way. In the village of Kao-lou (高樓), mostly inhabited by Christians, a military *chü-jên* (a literary man), who was very anti-Christian, on one occasion took proceedings against one of these Christians, and was fined by the authorities. Being very angry at this, he swore revenge on the whole sect. When he heard of the *I-ho-ch'üan* rising, he immediately invited some of its members to his village and drilled them every day. Hearing of this, the Native Christians informed the Foreign missionaries, who, in their turn, informed the Magistrate; a force of 70 soldiers was sent for their protection under a military official named YANG. When this news reached the rebels, they decided to begin operations at once without waiting any longer. On the 4th December 1899 some Christians were attacked and robbed near Chi-nan-fu, and on the 30th of the same month they murdered BROOKS, a missionary at Ping-yin (平陰). They then rose in a body and murdered Native Christians and missionaries, burnt the churches, and spread to Yung-ch'ing-hsien (永清縣), etc., burnt the Lu-Pao railway, the Peking-Tientsin telegraph office, and the Chang-chia-k'ou telegraph office. The Government was then powerless, and any active measures by the Empress against these rebels would have caused them to rebel against the Throne. The movement ended in the Emperor and Empress having to flee from their capital—Peking,—which was occupied by the Foreign Allies, and only restored after agreement had been made to pay compensation for the expenses occasioned by the Foreign occupation.

The names of the places which suffered through the Boxer exactions and which had to pay indemnities for damages done to properties and the murder of Christians or Foreigners in Shantung are the following: Ping-tu-chou (平度州), Chi-mo-hsien (即墨縣), I-tu-hsien (益都縣), An-ch'iu-hsien (安邱縣), Yang-ku-hsien (陽穀縣), Wei-hsien (濰縣), Kao-mi-hsien (高密縣), Lin-tz'ü-hsien (臨淄縣), and Ping-yin-hsien (平陰縣).

Disturbances at Chefoo.—The following is an abstract taken from the Chefoo 1900 Trade Report: "The net total value of the trade of the port—import and export—shows a decrease of *HkTa* 1,095,628, and the Dues and Duties collected, a decrease of *HkTa* 124,830, when compared with the figures of the previous year. This falling off is due to the Boxer troubles which happened in the latter half of the year, to the unsettled state of the northern part of China, and to the uncertainty as to whether this disturbance would spread to the southern provinces. June, July, and August were anxious months here for both Foreigners and Natives; Native merchants sent their families away, and either sold their goods at low prices or returned them to the interior. Numbers of Chinese merchants and labourers left the port. It was with great difficulty Natives could be induced to remain in Foreign employ, the Boxers having threatened to kill any who should be found when they arrived here who had dealings or had been in any way connected with Foreigners. At one time the Chinese Imperial Post couriers were stopped and questioned as to who were their employers. The situation became so acute that a Foreign volunteer guard was formed to watch and, if possible, to protect the Foreign quarter against attack. The Chefoo Guild, with the support of the Taotai, raised a band to guard all mountain passes and roads leading to Chefoo and to patrol the city streets and approaches thereto night and day. Foreign refugees from the interior were sent on to other places—Weihaiwei, Japan, etc.,—and Foreign lady residents were advised not to remain here; some who did remain had a small bundle of clothes by their bedside, so that in case of attack by night they would be able to take with them a few necessities. To add to this tension, a coolie riot occurred on the 30th June. It was astonishing to see how quickly the Bund and principal street facing the Foreign quarter became packed with Chinese. The reason given for the disturbance was that 500 Chinese and some half a dozen men with their queues cut were being detained in the compound of a Foreign hong. The hong's office windows were broken and an attempt was made to force the doors. It was suggested to the Chinese officials, who were on the spot, that the most simple way of settling the matter, would be for them and three of the ringleaders to search the premises. The proposal was adopted, with the result that neither the 500 nor a single Chinaman without his queue was found. The rest became easy; those who remained could only be considered bad characters, and the streets and Bund were soon cleared. Thus ended what at one time looked like a probable formidable disturbance. Towards the end of September nervousness decreased; imports gradually came forward more freely, till our December quarter showed a marked increase over the arrivals for the same period of the preceding year."

On the 5th July, at the suggestion of the Commissioner, the guns in the East and West Forts were dismantled by the removal of the breach blocks, of the sights, and of the raising and lowering gear, which, together with all ammunition, were kept in a safe place known to only a few reliable individuals.

DISTRICT OCCURRENCES.—1894.—On the 6th November the s.s. *Kwangchi* brought over from Port Arthur a Foreign surgeon in charge of a number of wounded Chinese soldiers *en route* for Weihaiwei. During the latter part of the month it was rumoured, on most reliable authority, that the Chinese soldiers on the East Beach intended, on first intimation of a Japanese attack

on Weihaiwei, to mutiny, kill their General, and then march upon and loot the Foreign Settlement. The Customs staff was armed and drilled and the Foreign community formed themselves into a volunteer corps.

1895.—On the 20th January the Japanese landed a force at Jung-ch'eng Bay (榮城縣) and took possession of the place without molestation. On the 30th Weihaiwei was attacked and the land forts captured by the Japanese, but those inland still held out. At Chefoo detachments from the American, British, French, and Russian men-of-war were lodged on shore, to protect the Foreign quarter. On the 17th February the Chinese training-ship *Kangchi* arrived from Weihaiwei with the bodies of Admiral TING (丁汝昌), General CHANG (張文選), and five other high officials. On the 2nd March the Chinese training-ship *Kangchi* left Chefoo with the above bodies; guards of honour from the British, German, and Russian men-of-war were drawn up on the Customs Jetty, to show respect to the late Admiral TING.

1897.—On the 28th October the Russian ensign was hoisted at Port Arthur. The Chinese force under General SUNG was withdrawn the same day, and the forts occupied by Russian troops.

On the 14th November a German squadron landed a force at Tsingtao (青島), demanded the withdrawal of the Chinese troops from the camp, and occupied the place.

1898.—On the 24th May the British ensign was hoisted at Weihaiwei.

1900.—On the 11th February five Germans (four engineers and one servant) arrived on horseback, with an escort of Chinese soldiers. They reported that while at a place called Nan-hsin (南新), in Kao-mi-hsien (高密縣), on the 1st instant, they were attacked by a mob in the early morning and had to make their escape on horseback, leaving all their belongings behind. To effect their escape they were forced to fire on the crowd in self-defence, killing and wounding two or three Natives.

On the 5th May a body of the Weihaiwei Boundary Commission was attacked by villagers at a place called Ma-shan-pao (馬山堡), near Wên-t'eng city (文登縣), and two British officers were wounded. Their escort, a body of the Weihaiwei Chinese Regiment, came up in time to rescue them and killed several of their assailants.

On the 10th June a guard of 50 Chinese soldiers, in charge of a petty officer, reported themselves to the Commissioner of Customs, and were stationed at the north gate of the Custom House, but on the 12th they were moved to the front of the Customs Bank. The guard was sent by the Taotai, to protect Customs and Foreign property from any sudden attack from Boxers.

On the 16th September telegraphic communication was established by cable between Taku and Kung-tung-tao. On the 21st the Great Northern Telegraph Company's steamer *Store Nordiske* landed the Taku-Chefoo cable on the East Beach, at Chefoo, and the public

were notified by the representatives of the company, acting for the Joint Telegraph Companies, that the line was to be opened for the transmission of messages to Taku on the 22nd.

Infectious Maladies.—The following table, showing the periods during which certain contagious or infectious maladies have presented themselves in an epidemic form at this port during the past three years, may be of interest to non-readers of medical reports:—

MONTH IN WHICH MOST PREVALENT.	DISEASE.
January	Small-pox, diphtheria.
February	Scarlet fever, small-pox, diphtheria.
March	Whooping-cough, malarial fever (mild type), tonsillitis.
April	Measles, whooping-cough, malarial fever (mild type), tonsillitis and follicular tonsillitis, influenza.
May	Scarlet fever, measles, whooping-cough, malarial fever (mild type).
June	Measles, diarrhoea (non-contagious), tonsillitis, enteric fever.
July	Scarlet fever, measles, diarrhoea (non-contagious), tonsillitis.
August	Diarrhoea (non-contagious), enteric fever.
September	Diarrhoea (non-contagious), dysentery and colitis, malarial fever (mild type), scarlet fever.
October	Diarrhoea (non-contagious), dysentery and colitis, malarial fever (mild type), enteric fever.
November	Small-pox, scarlet fever, malarial fever (mild type), influenza, tonsillitis, enteric fever, dysentery.
December	Small-pox, influenza.

(1.) VISITS FROM OFFICIALS.—1892.—On the 26th June His Excellency VON BRANDT, German Minister to Peking, arrived on a visit, and left for Peking on the 9th July. On the 30th June WU TA-CH'ENG (吳大澂), former Governor of Canton, arrived from Shanghai and left at once to inspect the naval station at Weihaiwei. On the 1st July His Excellency AUGUSTINE HEARD, United States Minister to Corea, arrived on a visit. On the 24th July His Excellency VON BRANDT arrived on a visit, and left again in September.

1893.—The revenue steamer *Pingching* left for Chemulpo after having embarked His Excellency VON BRANDT and suite.

1894.—On the 5th May His Excellency Mr. O'CONOR, Her Britannic Majesty's Minister to Peking, arrived from the north. On the 24th May Their Excellencies LI HUNG-CHANG and TING AN, Lord of the Admiralty, accompanied by a number of vessels of the Pei-yang squadron and the revenue steamer *Pingching*, arrived from Kiaochow Bay. The Viceroy inspected the forts on the East Beach in the morning and visited H.B.M.S. *Centurion* in the afternoon, after which the whole fleet departed for Shanhaikwan. On the 7th June His Excellency Mr. O'CONOR returned to Peking, and the Italian Minister arrived to spend the summer here.

In 1894 Their Excellencies LI HUNG-CHANG (李鴻章), then Superintendent of Northern Trade (北洋大臣), and TING AN (定安), then Tartar General of Shengking, came to Chefoo with the then Admiral TING JU-CH'ANG (丁汝昌) (all these since deceased), to inspect the Pei-yang squadron and military forces. The Hall of Benevolence was taken for their temporary residence. The Chefoo Taotai LIU HAN-FANG (劉含芳) and General SUN CHIN-PIAO (孫金彪) accompanied them in the inspection of the Chefoo forts and barracks. From here they proceeded to Weihaiwei and Port Arthur. When the China-Japan war broke out, His Excellency LI PING-HENG (李秉衡), late Governor of Shantung, came to Chefoo, for military purposes.

1895.—On the 6th May the Chinese Peace Envoys, WU T'ING-FANG (伍廷芳) and LIEN FANG (聯芳), accompanied by their adviser, arrived here, and on the following day the Japanese Envoy, Marquis Ito, came from Port Arthur. Ratifications of the Treaty of Peace were exchanged on the 8th, and early next morning the Japanese took their departure, followed, two days later, by the Chinese Ambassadors. In July the Russian, German, and Belgian Ministers arrived, to spend the summer here, returning to Peking in September. On the 3rd August His Excellency Signor BARDI, Italian Minister to China, arrived, to spend the summer here, returning to Peking on the 9th November.

1896.—On the 12th June His Excellency Signor BARDI again paid a visit to Chefoo, returning to his post on the 26th September.

1897.—On the 2nd July YU HSIEN (毓賢), Provincial Judge, arrived from Chi-nan-fu, and, having determined what reductions should be made in the local troops, left for Chi-nan-fu on the 3rd.

1898.—His Excellency LI HUNG-CHANG (李鴻章) came, with a Foreign expert, to inspect the breaches in the Yellow River. After him came P'U LIANG (溥良) for the same purpose. On the 1st May CHANG JU-MEI (張汝梅) left on his way to the districts Tung-ch'ang-fu (東昌府) and Yen-chou-fu (兗州府), where disturbances had arisen, due to the oppressive money collection on the part of Native officials. On the 15th August the Chefoo Taotai LI HSI-CHIEH (李希杰) left by the Chinese torpedo-boat destroyer *Feiyang* for Kiaochow, to take part in the delimitation of German Kiaochow frontier; he returned to Chefoo on the 13th October.

1899.—On the 20th May His Royal Highness Prince HENRY of Prussia and Admiral FRITZ arrived with the German fleet. On the 24th Prince HENRY paid a visit to Weihaiwei and afterwards left for Peking, calling at T'ung-chou-fu on his way north. On the 13th December the Provincial Judge YU HSIEN (毓賢) arrived from Chi-nan-fu by road, and, having inspected the local troops and forts, left on the 17th.

1900.—On the 13th April the Taotai LI HSI-CHIEH (李希杰) proceeded to Weihaiwei, to assist at the delimitation of territory leased to the British Government.

Changes of Chinese Officials.—In 1892 LI PING-HENG (李秉衡) was Governor of Shantung province. On the 29th November 1897 CHANG JU-MEI (張汝梅) took over the seals of office from the latter, and surrendered charge on the 11th April 1899 to YU HSIEN (毓賢). On the 26th December 1899 Governor YU HSIEN handed over charge to YUAN SHIH-K'AI (袁世凱),

who was Governor till 7th December 1901, when he was relieved by the present Governor CHANG JÊN-CHÜN (張人駿).

The Taotai, Superintendents of Customs, at this port during the decade have been the following:—

LI CHENG-JUNG (李正榮): 1st January 1892 to 8th November 1893.

LIU HAN-FANG (劉含芳): 8th November 1893 to 9th November 1895.

LI HSING-JUI (李興銳): 9th November 1895 to 13th July 1896.

HSI T'UNG (錫桐): 13th July 1896 to 27th October 1897.

LI HSI-CHIEH (李希杰): 27th October 1897 to present date.

(m.) DEGREES WON BY THE PROVINCE OF SHANTUNG.—*Nil.*

(n.) LITERARY MOVEMENTS.—There are Examination Halls in every district. Students are examined by the local officials monthly, besides periodical examinations held by the examiner. An Imperial Decree of 1901 ordered that these Examination Halls be converted into schools and the examinations somewhat changed. The military examination will be abolished altogether; in its stead candidates will go through a course of practice with modern arms.

(o.) DEGREES ALLOWED TO SHANTUNG.—*See "Chefoo Decennial Report, 1882-91."*

POPULATION OF PROVINCE.—About the same as during the last decade, 1882-91—29,000,000. The area of Shantung is 65,184 square miles, having 10 prefectures, 2 independent departments, 9 departments, and 96 districts. Say, there are 57,300 villages; taking, as an average, 500 people to a village, the total population would be 28,650,000. In addition to these there are about 26,750 people living in cities, the grand total would thus amount to 28,917,500.

PER-CENTAGE OF PERSONS WHO CAN READ.—Amongst the men there are 10 per cent. who can read and write; of these, only 3 to 4 per cent. can compose well. Very few women can read, their education being principally confined to needlework, weaving, etc. The number of Christian women throughout the province is increasing, but at present does not exceed 2,000; they are taught to read and write at the missionary schools. In wealthy families girls are sometimes taught to read.

(p.) PHYSICAL CHARACTER OF SHANTUNG.—*See "Chefoo Decennial Report, 1882-91."*

Climate of Shantung.—The climate is healthy. Rain usually falls from the middle of June to July; in late years summers have been rather dry. The soil is fertile, giving better harvests than in most provinces.

Hsiao-ch'ing River and Canal.—About 10 years ago His Excellency SHENG HSUAN-HUAI (盛宣懷) bought a dredger, to deepen the Hsiao-ch'ing River. A canal was also constructed to within 15 li (5 English miles) of the capital of the province, Chi-nan-fu. After a time dredging operations ceased, the dredger being unfit for use; since then they have not been resumed. The depth of river and canal varies greatly. Last year a Chinese firm petitioned the then Governor YUAN SHIH-K'AI for authority to ply steamers along this river and canal. A deputy was instructed to report whether such permission could be granted without danger to the banks; but before the report could be handed in His Excellency YUAN SHIH-K'AI was

promoted to the viceroyalty of Chihli, since when the subject appears to have been dropped, as well as all progressive operations at and round the capital of the province.

INDUSTRIES.—*Salt.*—Salt is produced from three different sources in China—sea, lake, and well. In Shantung only sea salt is obtainable, consequently the salt works are along the coast line. The method for obtaining the salt is either by boiling the sea water or exposing it to sun evaporation; the months April to July are the most favourable for the latter process. There are 10 salt-manufacturing centres (鹽場), the property of the Government, in the Shantung province, to wit: Yung-li (永利) (in Hsin-chi-chên, 新集鎮), Yung-fu (永阜) (in Hsin-chuang, 辛莊), Fu-kuo (富國) (in Wa-ch'êng-shê, 瓦城社), Kuan-t'ai (官臺) (in Chu-hou-chên, 駐侯鎮), Wang-chia-kang (王家岡) and Hsi-yu (西峪) (in Hsi-yu-chuang, 西峪莊), Têng-ning (登甯) (in Yen-ch'ang-ts'un, 鹽場村), Shih-ho (石河) (near Kiaochow, 膠州), Hsin-yang (信陽) (south-east of Chu-ch'êng-hsien, 諸城縣), and T'ao-lo (濤雒) (in Jih-chao-hsien, 日照縣). The total annual production is about 7,490 piculs.

The Government does not manufacture or sell salt, but the right to produce and manufacture salt is farmed to contractors by resident firms (*kang*, 綱), of which there are six who have the privilege by purchase.

The obligation of these resident firms is to supervise the contractors, make contracts, and collect the taxes which they send to the Salt Controller (鹽運使司).

The salt traffic in Shantung is divided into *yin* (引) salt (320 catties nominally but really 440 catties = 1 *yin*) and *p'iao* (票) salt (nominally 250 catties but really 344 catties = 1 *p'iao*). *Yin* salt is consumed in the south-west of the province, and used exclusively in salting fish and vegetables; *p'iao* salt is consumed in the north-east of the province, and in less quantity than the *yin* salt. The total Duty levied on *yin* salt is, approximately, Ta 130,000, on *p'iao* salt, Ta 56,000, which places the annual collection about Ta 206,000 (Likin, Ta 20,000, being included). To this amount must be added: (a.) the additional charge for past deficits in revenue (*Tieh shang kuei kung chia chia*, 貼商歸公加價), Ta 70,000 odd, and (b.) the tax known as *Hai-fang chia chia* (海防加價) (coast defence), Ta 10,000 odd, making the total of all and every kind of Duty Ta 286,000 for Shantung.

Salt is largely used in this province for preparing purposes (salting vegetables, the making of soys and of bean sauces, etc.). The retail price of salt obtained by the boiling process is (Duty and extra charges paid) 8 cash per catty, and of that obtained by sun evaporation, 3 or 4 cash per catty.

Foreign Wine Company.—In 1893 a Chinese company, styled the Pioneer Wine Company, owned by some Singapore Chinese, was started. A Foreign expert is in charge of this enterprise. Tracts of ground were purchased and Native vines first planted; but trials of wine made from grapes mostly bought from neighbouring Native farmers proved that the local grape was not suited for the manufacture of some classes of Foreign wine. This led to importation of vines from Europe. There are now about 450 *mou* of land under cultivation, and it is intended to increase this area yearly. The stock of wine at present is 450 hectoliters of white wine made of Shantung grapes, and 200 hectoliters of red and white wine made of

Foreign grapes. Some of the red wine is said to be excellent, and after it has been stored some years will prove to be of better flavour than the best classes of red wine now placed on the China market.

(g.) NATIVE SHIPPING.—*Shantung-owned Junks*.—There are about 200 sea-going junks owned by merchants of Chefoo; their carrying capacity ranges from 100 to 200 *shih* each (1 *shih* equals 1.50 piculs), and the ports they trade with are Shanghai and Newchwang. The smaller ones ply to the coast ports of Shantung and the Liaotung Peninsula. There are about 2,500 "inland-waters" junks; these latter trade with the seaports on the coast of Shantung and the Liaotung Peninsula. The places they belong to are as under:—

Chia-ts'ang and T'ao-lo, of Jih-chao-hsien (夾倉灣維在日照縣).

Kiaochow (膠州).

Chin-k'ou, of Chi-mo-hsien (金口在即墨縣).

Wei-hai-wei and Shih-tao, of Wên-têng-hsien (威海衛石島在文登縣).

Li-tao, of Jung-ch'êng-hsien (俚島在榮城縣).

Yang-ma-tao, of Ning-hai-ch'ou (養馬島在甯海州).

Chang-shan-tao, of Têng-chou-fu (長山島在登州).

Sang-tao, of Huang-hsien (桑島在黃縣).

Lai-chou (萊州).

Tieh-mên-k'ou, of Li-ching-hsien (鐵門口在利津縣).

Ch'êng-tzu-k'ou, of Hai-fêng-hsien (埕子口在海豐縣).

In Chefoo the office is the Native Custom House, with two sub-taxing stations under the control of the Commissioner of Customs, viz., one at K'ung-tung-tao (鯉銅島) and one at Hsia-ho-k'ou (下河口). Each non-Treaty port on the coast of Shantung has its own Custom House, and these are under the control of the Chefoo Taotai. Duties are levied on goods according to a tariff; goods not enumerated in the tariff pay 2 per cent. *ad valorem* Duty. Likin is collected at the Likin stations, which are located near each Custom House. The total revenue collected by the Native Customs in Shantung is about Tta 150,000 a year.

Junks belonging to other Provinces.—The following is a list of non-Shantung-owned junks which trade at Chefoo:—

Newchwang junks.

Tientsin junks.

Kiangsu junks.

Ningpo junks.

Foochow and Amoy junks.

Swatow junks.

Canton junks.

(h.) BANKING AGENCIES.—*Native*.—28 Native firms issue bank notes, some for amounts in silver and some for various sums in copper cash. Mexican dollar notes are issued by a Native bank (Shun Tai, 順泰) for values from \$1 to \$50, and another bank (Ch'ien I Fêng, 謙益豐) issues Ts'ao-p'ing tael notes in values from Tta 2 to Tta 500. They also issue drafts on Shanghai

and other places, keep current accounts, lend out money, and receive money on deposit. Nine of the above firms, besides issuing cash notes, are general merchants; they always have sufficient money in hand to cover what notes they have in circulation. With their paper issue they are able to transact their business, and thus save the interest which they would have to pay on borrowed capital. The remaining 17 firms are *ch'ien chuang* (錢莊), "money changers;" they issue cash notes, lend money, and exchange sycee and copper cash. Some time back the Fu-shan Magistrate sent out a proclamation ordering all shops issuing copper cash notes to find in future five reliable guarantors, or their establishments would be closed for non-observance of this rule; this regulation was made in order to protect the public against swindlers.

Foreign.—The Foreign banks that have agencies here are the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, the Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China, the Yokohama Specie Bank, Limited, the Mercantile Bank of India, Limited, the Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris, the International Bank of St. Petersburg, and the Russo-Chinese Bank; but of these, only one bank, the Russo-Chinese Bank, receives money locally on fixed deposit, opens current accounts, and lends money out on interest.

(s.) CHINESE IMPERIAL POST.—The Chinese Imperial Post Office was opened on 1st February 1897 by Imperial Edict dated 20th March 1896. The suggestion of establishing a Chinese Imperial Post was first made by Sir ROBERT HART to the Chinese Government in 1861. Previous to 1st February 1897 there was a Customs post for the transport of Service letters; the general public also had their coast letters carried by its agency. The old Customs post functioned at Treaty ports only, whereas the Chinese Imperial Post aims at having an office in every town in China. The Chinese Imperial Post began its work at the Treaty ports with the Customs postal staff, which has since been augmented by non-Customs employes; it is now gradually extending operations into the interior of China. The head or general office of each district is always to be found at a Treaty port, and the branches radiating from this centre are known as inland offices. The direction of each district office is vested in the resident Commissioner of Customs, who is *ex-officio* District Postmaster, while the whole is controlled by the Inspector General of Posts, Sir ROBERT HART.

The first inland office under Chefoo control was opened at Têng-chou on the 1st October 1898; at the present time Chefoo has 20 inland offices situated in the following places:—

Ning-hai (甯海州).

Shih-tao (石島).

Têng-chou (登州府).

Lai-chou (萊州府).

Ts'ao-hsien (曹縣).

Ch'í-ho (齊河).

Mêng-yin (蒙陰縣).

Chi-ning (濟甯州).

Wên-têng (文登縣).

Lai-yang (萊陽縣).

Huang-hsien (黃縣).

Sha-ho (沙河).
 Wu-ting (武定府).
 Tai-an (泰安府).
 Yen-chou (兗州府).
 T'eng-hsien (滕縣).
 Weihaiwei (威海衛).
 Liu-kung-tao (劉公島).

The last two are conducted under the same regulations as post offices at Treaty ports.

In the map of Shantung attached to this Decennial Report the towns are shown (underlined green) where the Imperial post offices are opened, and the routes are indicated and the distances between each place are given in *li* (3 *li* to 1 English mile). The offices marked on the map are not all under Chefoo control, as a number of them are in the Kiaochow postal district. The staff on the pay roll of this office is as follows: Foreigners, 2 at Chefoo, 1 at Chi-nan-fu, and 1 at Weihaiwei,—total 4; Chinese, 34 clerks, 30 letter-carriers, and 35 couriers,—total, 99; the total number of employes, Chinese and Foreign, is 103.

The fact that the old Native system for the transportation of mails is still in full work handicaps the Imperial Chinese Post financially, and up to the present T'eng-chou and Huang-hsien are the only two self-supporting offices inland.

The quantity of mail matter dealt with is steadily on the increase, the figures for 1901 being:—

	RECEIVED.		DESPATCHED.	
	Originated in China.	Originated Abroad.	For China.	For Abroad.
Letters.....	180,983	21,380	172,905	37,052
Postcards.....	2,851	1,607	1,266	6,979
Newspapers, books, etc.	39,300	25,877	15,542	18,170
Samples.....	204	166	173	300
Parcels.....	2,544	620	1,165	341
	RECEIVED.		DESPATCHED.	
Closed mails, Native postal establishments	2,004		2,190	
" " Foreign post offices.....	3,475		2,652	

On the 1st January 1898 a money order department was opened throughout the Service, but so far it has been little used in Chefoo. For the year 1901 the work done was:—

677 orders issued Value, \$5,252.59
 695 orders cashed " \$5,778.62

The tariff of postage fixed by the Chinese Imperial Post is:—

Letters, per ½ oz.	2 cents.
Postcards, each	1 "
Newspapers, each, up to 2 oz.	½ "
" " " 4 "	1 "
" every additional 3 oz.	1 "
" in bulk, per 3 oz.	1 "
Printed matter, per 2 oz.	2 "
Commercial papers, per 2 oz.	2 "
" " minimum charge, per packet	2 "
Samples, per 2 oz.	2 "
Registration	5 "
" return receipt	5 "
Parcels, per lb.	10 "
" insurance fee	1 per cent.
" " " to Chungking, etc.	2 "
" " " minimum fee	20 cents.
Money orders, per dollar	2 "

Native Postal Agencies.—There are seven Native postal agencies registered at the Chinese Imperial post office, and, so far as is known, there are no non-registered ones existing. They have no branches in the interior of Shantung, and do not send anything there; but carters or muleteers do a thriving trade in this way and must make a substantial addition to their ordinary income by carrying letters, etc., for the Native public.

All mail matter posted at these establishments is sent to Treaty ports through the Chinese Imperial Post in the form of "closed mails," noted above. The 2,004 closed mails received were said to contain 31,714 letters, and the 2,190 closed mails despatched were said to contain 21,740 letters.

Parcels are not now handled by the Native postal agencies, whose postage rate is 80 cash per letter, large or small, for all places, excepting Ningpo, to which place 120 cash are charged. Postage is payable in full either by sender or receiver, the old system of liquidating half the postage at each end having been abolished.

(t.) CHANGES IN CUSTOMS WORK.—*Trade with Port Arthur, Talienwan, and Weihaiwei.*—Since the cession of Port Arthur to Russia and the opening of Talienwan steamers run regularly from and to these places, doing a brisk trade in the carriage of goods and passengers. Chefoo is the market of Port Arthur, and supplies of provisions, fresh fruits, vegetables, eggs, cattle, etc., are sent daily in large quantities, as will be seen by the tables on pp. 74-77.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF EXPORT FROM CHEFOO

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	PORT ARTHUR.					
		1898.		1899.		1900.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. 7h		Hk. 7h		Hk. 7h
Beancake.....	Piculs	3,240	4,536
Buttons, brass.....	Gross Piculs	1,200	600	5,200	2,600
Candles.....	Piculs
Cattle.....	Head	4	80	90	1,800
Chillies.....	Piculs	2,859	82,848	7,337	220,110
Cigars and cigarettes.....	Value
Clocks.....	Pieces
Cloth, Native.....	Piculs
Clothing, cotton.....	Piculs	386	938	55	171
" hats, etc.....	Value
Coal, Cardiff.....	Tons	626	2,709	...	7,469
Covers, bed.....	Pieces	229	176
Dates, red.....	Piculs
Eggs, fresh.....	Pieces
Felt.....	Piculs	26,901	7,723
Flour, American.....	Value	400	56,421	...	41,869
" Native.....	Piculs	825	1,808
Fruits, fresh.....	"	226	419	995	2,093
Glassware.....	"	8	149	59	1,121
Hams and bacon.....	"	24	1,350
Hardware.....	Value
Ironware.....	Piculs	31	155
Machinery.....	Value
Matches.....	Gross	222	94	772	1,495	...	1,115
" Japan.....	Pieces	2,200	431	12,463	2,931
Mats.....	No.	3,344	595	10,858	1,672
Mules.....	Gallons	166	6,640
Oil, kerosene, American.....	Piculs	7,500	1,409	32,040	6,394
Pepper, black.....	Value
Personal effects.....	Piculs	10
Provisions.....	Piculs	36,626
Rope, hemp.....	Piculs
" Manila.....	Piculs
Shoes.....	Pairs	250	83
Silk, raw, white.....	Piculs
" " yellow.....	"
" " wild.....	"
" piece goods.....	"
" pongees.....	"
" products, unclassified.....	Value
Soap.....	Value	20	288	...	2,241
Stores, household.....	Piculs	1,866	5,214	...	40,656
Sugar, refined.....	Piculs	14	85	82	525	354	2,336
" white.....	"	441	2,514
Tes, Japan.....	"	47	1,487
Tobacco, leaf.....	"	6	72	114	1,368
Wheat.....	Value	888	1,954
Wines.....	Value	...	3,065	...	5,370	...	36,421

TO PORT ARTHUR AND TALIENTWAN, 1898-1901.

	TALIENTWAN.									
	1901.		1898.		1899.		1900.		1901.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		Hk. 7h		Hk. 7h		Hk. 7h		Hk. 7h		Hk. 7h
38	53	410	574
14	1,036
99	2,109	3	64
11,930	357,900	695	20,850	839	25,170
187	3,461
...	18,149	793
414	1,130	48	108
128	5,376
953	40,979	567	24,387
...	3,003	181
50	1,300
7,249	4,511	308	180
1,600	4,160
1,287,390	10,390	168,400	1,346
1,290	280	5,294	919
...	34,930	38,189
8,750	15,219
1,216	2,520	2,265	1,252
93	1,795	2	39
...
...	2,162	235
199	1,270	35	208	850	4,653
...	1,782
400	128	2,550	2,416
40,176	9,100	933	253
10,500	1,575	600	90	23,708	3,556
67,570	12,604	104	5,200
92	1,960	5,470	817
...	1,420
...	55,858	1,456
...	343	2,552
435	11,527
12,046	3,614
12	3,424
36	10,746
58	9,935
39	15,308
119	29,750	4	1,000
15	2,461
...	1,497	114
...	17,997	668
625	4,313
271	2,626
...
187	2,244	103	1,236
1,011	2,224
...	55,775

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF NATIVE RE-EXPORT FROM

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	PORT ARTHUR.					
		1898.		1899.		1900.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			<i>Hk. 7h</i>		<i>Hk. 7h</i>		<i>Hk. 7h</i>
Cloth, Native.....	<i>Piculs</i>	15	600
Cotton yarn, Shanghai.....	"	3	60
Flour, Native.....	"
Gypsum.....	"
Paper, joss.....	"
Rice.....	"	1,912	6,045	5,838	18,682
Shoes.....	<i>Pairs</i>	2,306	1,383	...
Silk piece goods.....	<i>Piculs</i>
Tea.....	"	2	46	16	413	864	24,192
Wheat.....	"	3,843	8,071	3,712	8,166

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOREIGN RE-EXPORT FROM

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	PORT ARTHUR.					
		1898.		1899.		1900.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			<i>Hk. 7h</i>		<i>Hk. 7h</i>		<i>Hk. 7h</i>
Shirtings, grey, plain.....	<i>Pieces</i>	67	188
" white, ".....	"	300	750	439	1,317
T-Cloths.....	"
" Japanese.....	"	1,140	2,166	662	1,324
Drills, American.....	"	135	472	1,260	4,536
Sheetings, American.....	"	365	1,141	2,895	9,843
Cotton Italians.....	"	65	260
" flannel.....	"	80	201	111	344
" blankets.....	"	300	240
Japanese cotton cloth.....	"	190	290	435	784
Cotton yarn, Indian.....	<i>Piculs</i>	33	673	318	6,519
" " Japanese.....	"	15	329	76	1,634
Blankets.....	<i>Pairs</i>
Woollen goods, unclassified.....	<i>Pieces</i>	120	290	1,090	1,286
Iron, bars.....	<i>Piculs</i>	26	91
Aerated waters.....	<i>Value</i>	124	...	2,184
Bags, gunny.....	<i>Pieces</i>	2,100	168	27,950	2,454

CHEFOO TO PORT ARTHUR AND TALIEENWAN, 1898-1901.

1901.		TALIEENWAN.							
		1898.		1899.		1900.		1901.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Hk. 7h</i>		<i>Hk. 7h</i>		<i>Hk. 7h</i>		<i>Hk. 7h</i>		<i>Hk. 7h</i>
409	17,178	6	252
48	1,109	15	346
187	600	787	2,547
470	470	7,405	7,405
368	6,283
6,116	20,794	50,545	171,853
7,750	4,650
26	15,600	4	2,400
316	8,848	5	140
4,848	10,666

CHEFOO TO PORT ARTHUR AND TALIEENWAN, 1898-1901.

1901.		TALIEENWAN.							
		1898.		1899.		1900.		1901.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Hk. 7h</i>		<i>Hk. 7h</i>		<i>Hk. 7h</i>		<i>Hk. 7h</i>		<i>Hk. 7h</i>
443	1,329
4,118	14,413	162	567
515	1,133
11,510	21,869	540	1,026
6,872	24,739	62	223
18,858	62,231	587	1,937
1,459	6,420	12	52
657	1,884	11	33
2,645	2,989	60	51
619	1,227	12	36
1,306	32,650	48	1,200
557	14,482	122	3,172
1,320	3,168	31	74
1,321	1,526	205	249
130	494	397	1,509
...	1,570
15,330	1,224

The importations of Foreign and Native goods from Port Arthur and Talienwan are few; they are given in the following table:—

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF IMPORT, FOREIGN AND NATIVE, FROM PORT ARTHUR
AND TALIENTWAN, 1898-1901.

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1898.		1899.		1900.		1901.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
FOREIGN GOODS.			<i>Hk. Tn.</i>		<i>Hk. Tn.</i>		<i>Hk. Tn.</i>		<i>Hk. Tn.</i>
Butter and cheese.....	<i>Value</i>	60	1,594
Cigars and cigarettes	"	211	1,829
Coal, Cardiff.....	<i>Tons</i>	480	9,120
Flour, American.....	<i>Value</i>	1,337
Oil, engine.....	<i>Galls.</i>	5,368	1,209
Stationery.....	<i>Value</i>	75	3,483
Stores, household.....	"	...	132	...	1,424	...	3,149	...	4,736
Wines.....	"	...	200	...	613	...	1,520	...	4,879
NATIVE GOODS.									
Hair of all kinds.....	<i>Piculs</i>	12	...	1,250
Hemp.....	"	132	...	1,188
Hides, cow.....	"	19	361	...	730	...	15,330
Indigo, liquid.....	"	638	...	6,252
Silk, raw, wild.....	"	120	25,200	...	784	...	140,179
Tallow, animal.....	"	329	...	3,619
Tea.....	"	70	...	1,960

With Weihaiwei the trade is insignificant; this place is, above all, a military station. For a long time there was no regular communication with Weihaiwei; occasionally steamers of the China Navigation Company and the Indo-China Steam Navigation Company called on their way up and down the coast. Since 1900 there is a thrice-weekly service from this port to Weihaiwei; this service is done by a small Japanese steamer chartered by the British Government for the transport of mails. No importations have been received from Weihaiwei; the few exports from Chefoo to Weihaiwei are not worthy of mention.

Increase in Customs Work.—The work of the Customs has increased very considerably since 1891. The tonnage of the port now averages 2,290,804 tons, with an average of 2,772 vessels (entered and cleared) a year. This is due to the increase in trade, to the opening of inland waters, Port Arthur, Talienwan, Weihaiwei, Kiaochow, and to the importance of the Japanese market. The s.s. *Kwangchi* was the only steamer trading with inland places up to 1900, when 13 steamers, of which 11 were Japanese, took out Inland Waters Certificates, and in 1901 as many as 20 steamers registered under Inland Waters Regulations.

The following table gives the number of entries and clearances and the tonnage for the years 1900 and 1901, showing the increased importance of the trade:—

YEAR.	ENTERED INWARDS.		CLEARED OUTWARDS.		TOTAL ENTERED AND CLEARED.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1900.....	107	26,687	107	26,687	214	53,374
1901.....	415	115,274	412	114,956	827	230,230

The import and export of treasure from and to inland places and the passenger traffic between Chefoo and inland ports are given below:—

IMPORT AND EXPORT OF TREASURE, 1899-1901.

IMPORTED FROM	1899.			1900.			1901.		
	Sycee.	Dollars.	Copper Cash.	Sycee.	Dollars.	Copper Cash.	Sycee.	Dollars.	Copper Cash.
Yang-chiao-kou.....	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.
Hu-t'ou-yai.....	92,580	10,200	20,290
Ta-tung-kou.....	49,652	1,900	4,000
Lung-k'ou.....	117,285	12,410	...	134,870	40,680	30,540
Ta-shan-ho.....	16,050
Chin-k'ou.....	38,928	...	8,467
Ta-chuang-ho.....	32,200	6,780	13
Ku-shan.....
EXPORTED TO	1899.			1900.			1901.		
	Sycee.	Dollars.	Copper Cash.	Sycee.	Dollars.	Copper Cash.	Sycee.	Dollars.	Copper Cash.
Yang-chiao-kou.....	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.
Hu-t'ou-yai.....	3,727	8,000
Ta-tung-kou.....	141,600	24,500
Lung-k'ou.....	99,410	402,487	405,015
Ta-shan-ho.....
Chin-k'ou.....	1,000
Ta-chuang-ho.....	5,200	1,000	...
Ku-shan.....	22,400

PASSENGER TRAFFIC BETWEEN CHEFOO AND INLAND PLACES, 1892-1901.

YEAR.	PASSENGERS TO INLAND PLACES.		PASSENGERS FROM INLAND PLACES.	
	Foreigners.	Natives.	Foreigners.	Natives.
1892.....	12	1,266	16	1,473
1893.....	16	1,715	15	1,255
1894.....	6	1,268	11	615
1895.....
1896.....	40	1,509	11	1,374
1897.....	23	1,728	31	2,066
1898.....	50	1,507	22	2,187
1899.....	29	5,076	20	5,855
1900.....	47	10,098	189	18,504
1901.....	421	15,640	157	24,245

(u.) DEVELOPMENT IN SHANTUNG.—*Weihaiwei*.—This once strongly fortified naval station was captured by the Japanese on the 30th January 1895, and was held by them pending the payment of the indemnity, which was finally liquidated in 1898. Before the evacuation by the Japanese an Agreement was concluded between Great Britain and China that the former should lease the territory from the latter, and, accordingly, on the 24th May 1898 the British flag was formally hoisted in presence of the representatives of each nation. The population of Weihaiwei has since then increased, and private residences, barracks, and hotels have been built. A number of people from Shanghai resort there for the summer, enjoying the scenery and the coolness of the place. As it is more or less a military station, hardly any trade is carried on, only a few re-exports from Chefoo are sent there.

Kiaochow.—This place was occupied by a German squadron on the 14th November 1897, and on the 2nd September 1898 it was declared a free port. It is held on lease from China for 99 years, in the same manner as Weihaiwei, Port Arthur, and Kwangchowwan. The shipping trade is large and commercial communication has been arranged by an adequate Customs Agreement.

Naval Stations.—Since the loss of Weihaiwei and Port Arthur there has been no naval station for the Pei-yang squadron. During the Boxer troubles the *Haitien* took refuge in the Miao-tao Group for several months. Later the whole fleet anchored at Kiangyin (江陰). It is reported that the Superintendent for Northern Trade proposes to take Chefoo as a naval station for the Pei-yang squadron and to establish naval colleges here; but this scheme has not yet been carried out.

Filanda Silk.—Previous to 1892 the first filanda was worked solely by hand and produced only 50 catties a day. The importation of cocoons and the demand for tussah silk were then much smaller. In 1892 steam with half-power was applied and the produce increased to 70 catties a day. No profit, however, was made, the reasons being that the quantity of

cocoons was insufficient, the workmen were insubordinate, and the gain did not cover the cost on the outlay.

In 1895 the filanda was rented by Messrs. SING TAI & Co., and was then worked with full steam, resulting in the produce of 150 catties per day. The import of cocoons increased and the demand for and the price of tussah silk rose. Still no profit was realised; skilled workmen were few and the old corrupt regulations could not be changed, on account of the threatening conduct of the refractory workmen. In two years the daily production rose to 200 catties; the profit was still but trifling, for the Native workmen receive their pay in copper cash, and the price of cash had risen considerably: in 1897-98 the exchange of a dollar was only 800 cash, as compared to 1,000 cash in 1895.

In 1900 a new regulation was made, resulting in an output of 250 catties per day, and though exchange continued low, it was covered by increased manufacture. Tussah silk reeled by this filanda obtained $\text{Ta } 40$ to $\text{Ta } 50$ per picul over that reeled by the Native-made weaving machines.

For more than 10 years tussah silk has been manufactured at Chefoo by the use of small wooden machines of Foreign pattern. The factories were first established in the interior; but on account of the delay in sending cocoons inland, of the damage they suffered on the way, of the heavy charges on transportation, and of other inconveniences, the factories were removed to this port in 1895. The spinners understand their business well and give much attention to the reeling. The silk produced is reeled from four to six cocoons only. The price obtained in Foreign markets is $\text{Ta } 40$ to $\text{Ta } 50$ per picul more than that of silk produced by large skein winders; hence nearly all the factories use small winders. In Fengtien and Kwantung only large winders are used, and the silk produced from them is dark in colour and coarse in thread. Though cheaper, the demand for it is slack. The silk trade is increasing gradually. In 1900, however, owing to the Boxer troubles, the price of cocoons rose, while that of silk fell, and, in consequence, the merchants suffered heavy losses; but in 1901 the trade recovered, the price of tussah silk rose again, that of cocoons fell, which enabled the merchants to realise a good profit, sufficient to cover the losses of the previous year.

A second steam manufactory has now been built, and both filandas are making profits, as they are under the management of one Chinese firm with a money interest in both. The selling of the silk and shipment abroad for each is under the direction of a separate Foreign firm. There should be room for more manufactories. The price for tussah silk, as a rule, does not vary greatly; the industry, therefore, is considered safe from heavy losses.

Mines.—About the year 1887 a gold mine was opened by the late Taotai LI TSUNG-TAI (李宗岱) in the Chao-yüan district (招遠縣). As the work was done by hand, it was not a prosperous one. The production was fair; but as the capital was not sufficient to buy a big water-pumping machine, the mine was given up. It was once more opened, but again given up. Since 1896, when the late Governor LI PING-HENG prohibited its working, the mine has been closed.

In Ping-tu (平度州) a gold mine was worked by Foreign machinery under Foreign experts. The mine was fairly productive, but the machinery was accidentally burnt, and about the same time the working of the mine was prohibited by the above-mentioned Governor.

In 1898 a coal mine was opened at Wei-hsien (濰縣) under German experts. Its future prospects cannot yet be pronounced upon, as, although shafts have been sunk to some depth, no trace of coal has yet been met.

There is gold dust in Hsieh-chia-ho (解甲河), also a gold mine in Shui-tao-chi (水道集), in Ning-hai-chou (甯海州), but so far both have been left untouched.

It is said that some Germans have applied to the Governor for a monopoly to open the gold mines in Ch'ien-fu-shan (千佛山) and Ch'ieh-hua-shan (鵝華山), in Chi-nan-fu, the lead and coal mines in Chang-ch'ing district (長清縣), and the coal and gold mines in Tzu-ch'uan district (淄川縣); but whether the monopoly will be granted them is unknown.

Street Lighting.—Until some years ago there were no street lamps in the Chefoo city; but on account of bad characters in the streets, the Taotai Hsi T'UNG (錫桐) gave orders that each shop was to hang a lamp at its entrance, which was to be lighted every night by the shopkeeper. At first this order was strictly obeyed, but after some months it was disregarded. At the present time most shops still keep lamps at their doors, but some do not trouble to light them.

City Bund.—In 1902 it is proposed to construct a city Bund from the south Tai-p'ing-wan extending along the front of the city to the city wall, and having a frontage of 3,600 feet. The area of the reclaimed land will be at least 450 *mou*; the Bunds and roads will occupy 67 *mou*, leaving a balance of 383 *mou* of land available for building purposes. There will be five sets of landing-steps. The Bund will be 50 feet broad, two roads running lengthwise and 12 running crosswise; some roads will be 30 feet broad, others 20 feet, and others again 15 feet. All the roads will have centre drains of concrete pipes set in cement, with proper fall to the various outlets. 100 lampposts and six latrines for public use will be provided.

The cost of reclamation will be borne by the Chinese foreshore lotholders.

Inland Waters Navigation.—In 1892 the s.s. *Kwangchi* made 118 trips to Lung-k'ou, Hu-t'ou-yai, Yang-chiao-kou, T'eng-chou-fu, and Port Arthur, taking away some 3,800 bales of piece goods and 14,300 bales of cotton yarn, and brought to Chefoo silk, straw braid, and Native opium.

In April 1893 the s.s. *Kwangchi* commenced to run, bringing 25 piculs of Native opium from Lai-chou-fu; she ceased running in June, owing to the Sino-Japanese war.

In 1894 the s.s. *Kwangchi* resumed her traffic with inland places and brought some 326 piculs of Native opium from Lai-chou-fu. She made a trip for the first time to Ta-tung-kou, on the coast of the Liaotung, returning with cocoons.

In 1895 and 1896: the usual traffic.

In 1897: the usual traffic, bringing 339 chests of Native opium.

In 1898 the s.s. *Kwangchi* made 26 trips to local non-Treaty ports. Among other goods she took away 4,700 bales of cotton piece goods, 20,400 bales of cotton yarn, and 400 cases of kerosene oil, and brought back to Chefoo 8,900 bales of straw braid, 117 chests of Native opium, 140 bales of silk, and 730 bales of cocoons.

In 1899, early in May, two Chinese-owned steam-launches, the *Wingfoo* and the *Kam-ling*, were registered here as inland-waters navigation steamers, and made 10 trips to Ta-tung-kou; but their tonnage was too small to allow of their carrying sufficient cargo to make it a paying concern. In June they ceased running, and returned to Hongkong. Their place was taken by the steamers *Hoangho* and *Kwangchi*.

In 1900 the inland-waters navigation traffic increased very much. 13 steamers registered under the Inland Waters Navigation Rules—11 were Japanese, 1 a British steamer (*Hoangho*), and 1 a Chinese-owned steamer (*Pioneer*). All these vessels ran almost regularly, principally between here and Ta-tung-kou.

In 1901 20 steamers were registered under the Inland Waters Navigation Rules, and paid very well.

(v.) MISSIONARY SOCIETIES.—The following missions are at work in Shantung: American Baptist, American Presbyterian, American Methodist, English Baptist, English Methodist, China Inland, Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, Canadian Presbyterian, Swedish Baptist, Berlin, General Evangelical Protestant of Germany, and Roman Catholic.

Protestant.—Men and women included, there are about 300 Protestant missionaries (Foreign); 15,000 Natives professing Christianity (some estimate more, as this number does not include the children of Christian families, but only adult members), 400 or more Native preachers, and several thousand inquirers—no accurate figures are available.

Roman Catholic.—The Roman Catholic Mission in Chefoo belongs to the northern of the two vicariates in Shantung. In 1898, owing to the occupation of Kiaochow by the Germans, that portion comprising the four sub-prefectures of Tai-ni, Kiaochow, Kao-mi, and Chu-ching in the sphere of German influence was handed over to the care of the Steyl missionaries (Holland), and, in exchange, three sub-prefectures in the north of Shantung—Li-ching, Chan-hua, and Hai-feng—were given to the mission of Eastern Shantung; hence there are three missions in Shantung, each with its own Bishop.

The number of workers, Christians, places of worship, etc., is estimated as follows:—

(1.) *Northern Shantung* (composed of Italian missionaries, though there are a few Europeans from other countries, chiefly from Spain and Austria): European priests, 13; Chinese priests, 15; Catholics, 25,285; catechumens, 89; churches and chapels, 180; principal residences, 7; seminaries, 2, with 39 students; primary schools, 47; orphanages, 4, with 372 orphans (boys and girls); teachers of schools, 87.

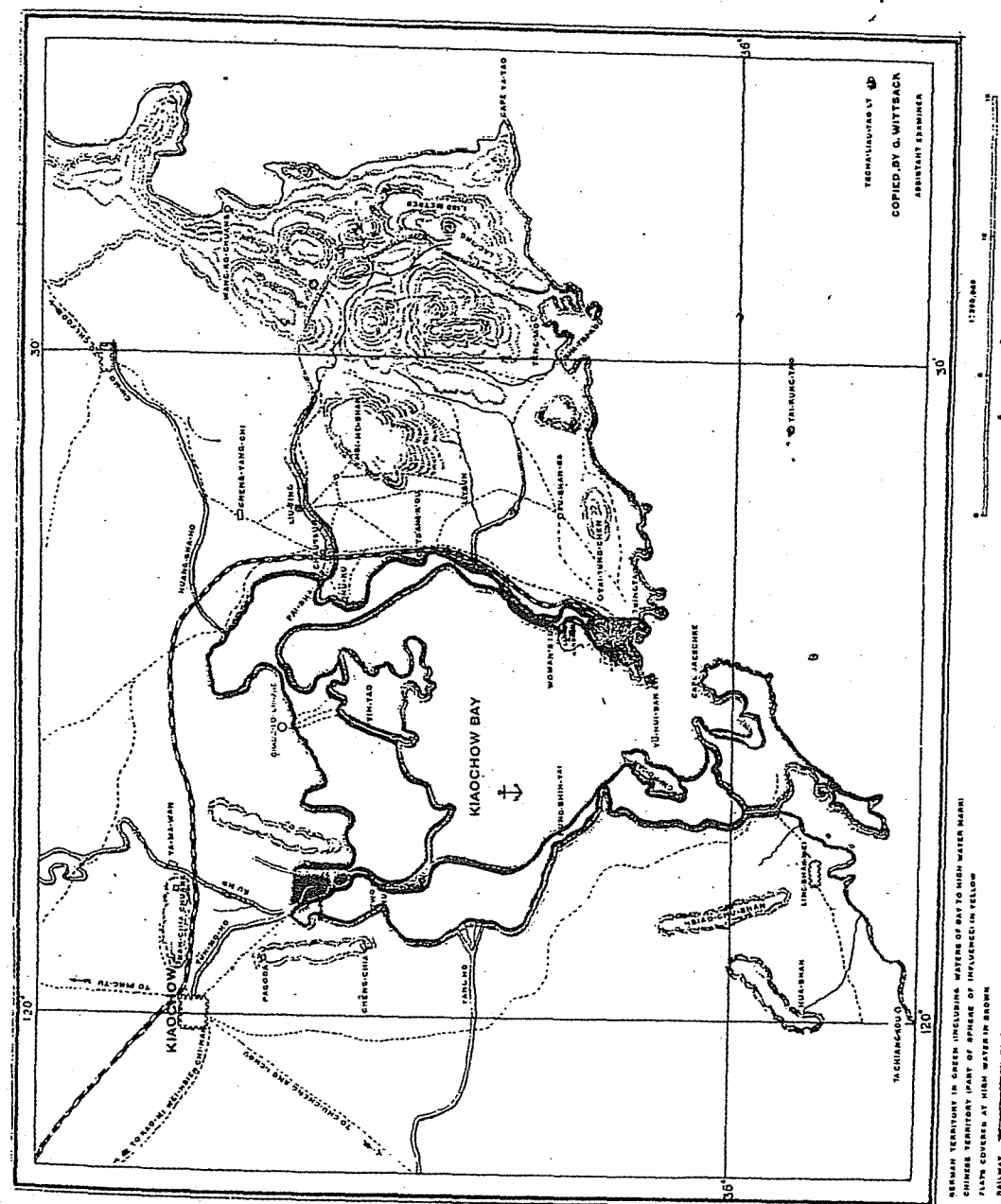
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GERMAN TERRITORY IS GREEN INCLUDING WATERS OF BAY TO HIGH WATER MARK
CHINESE TERRITORY (PART OF SPHERE OF INFLUENCE) IN YELLOW
PLATS COVERED BY HIGH WATER IN BROWN

GERMAN TERRITORY IN GREEN INCLUDING
CHINESE TERRITORY (PART OF SPHERE OF
INFLUENCE) COVERED BY HIGH WATER IN LOW
WATER

[illegible]

What was then written holds good now. In order to judge the advance likely to be made in the future, inquire of the past. 10 years ago railways were suggested, and the necessity for an improvement of waterways and roads was pointed out; no attempt has been made on the part of the Chinese to do anything in this direction—indeed, as far as they are concerned the condition of Shantung remains practically the same as what it was this time 10 years ago. The railway now constructed is entirely a Foreign enterprise, built with Foreign capital, and with the view of making Tsingtao, as far as possible, a centre for the trade of the province. The only chance of advancement lies in the hands of the Chinese authorities; if they lead the way, the people will follow. The adage is true, "Heaven helps them that help themselves;" and if the officials would profit from the labour of the people and the produce of the soil, they must be willing to meet Foreigners on their own ground by employing Foreign methods of



procedure and studying Western science. Should nothing be done to improve the waterways so as to allow small steamers to ply inland, towing junks carrying produce; should no railways be constructed from Chefoo along the northern portion of this province, passing through the principal towns,—the probabilities are that the whole of Shantung will ere long be fed from Tsingtao, and Chefoo will be reduced to a mere calling port for passengers. In short, to sum up, the future prospects of Chefoo depend entirely upon the encouragement to progress set to the people by their officials.

JAMES W. CARRALL,
Commissioner of Customs.

CUSTOM HOUSE,
CHEFOO, 31st December 1901.

KIAOCHOW.

DECENNIAL REPORT, 1892-1901.

INTRODUCTION.—The Kiaochow Custom House, which controls the commerce of the Chinese territory around the Bay of Kiaochow and adjoining coast line, was opened on the 1st July 1899. Its head office was—by desire of the German Government and in virtue of the Special Convention signed at Peking on the 17th April 1899—established at Tsingtao, the chief port in the German territory and seat of the Government.

The Convention aims at centralising the land and water borne commerce of the bay at Tsingtao, where a new harbour for large size vessels, with piers, godowns, and modern appliances, is being constructed and where the Shantung Railway, which is to connect it with the provincial capital and the inland trading centres, has its terminus. The difficulties experienced by the Colony of Hongkong in dealing with the Customs question at a time when great prosperity had already set in, and the impossibility then of discovering a *modus* which would satisfy all parties and do away with an irksome control of vessels and travellers crossing between British and Chinese territories, made it clear to the framers of the Kiaochow Customs Convention that a new method would have to be devised, which, while giving merchants an easy accessible way to fulfil their Duty obligations to the Chinese Government, would not materially infringe upon the advantages which Tsingtao was to enjoy as a free port. This problem the Convention has satisfactorily solved in a way novel to modern international usage by permitting the Chinese Customs to function under certain conditions in German free-port territory under German protection. The admittance of the Chinese Custom House at Tsingtao was decided upon with a view to obviate delay to the railway travellers on entering Chinese territory, and to enable merchants to free their goods on the spot instead of at the frontier, thereby saving the expenses and delays inseparable from frontier Custom House agencies, and also preventing the springing up there of a frontier town—where Exports could have been stored, sorted, repacked, and sold before payment of Duty and where Imports could have been retailed Duty paid,—which would undoubtedly have diverted commerce from, and retarded the development of, the new port of Tsingtao.

The main features of the Convention and the advantages secured by it for the German territory are the following :—

- (1°) The head office of the Kiaochow Customs to be established at Tsingtao: to be officered by Germans selected from the Chinese Customs Service; the official language to be German (besides Chinese and English); the Commissioner

of the Kiaochow Customs to have charge of both the Foreign and Native Custom Houses, and to issue all documents and perform all functions appertaining at the Treaty ports to the Superintendent (Taotai).

- (2°) All goods arriving by sea at Tsingtao—Opium excepted—to be exempt from Duty and to circulate free in German territory.
- (3°) On importation to the *hinterland* such goods to be passed through the Custom House and pay Duty before removal at Tsingtao: Foreign goods to pay full Tariff Duty and Native goods arriving under Coast Trade Duty Certificate from Treaty ports to pay half Duty.
- (4°) Goods and produce from the *hinterland* must be passed through the Custom House at Tsingtao before shipment and pay Tariff Export Duty.
- (5°) Produce raised in German territory and merchandise manufactured therefrom to pay no Export Duty upon shipment. The Duty to be paid on articles manufactured in German territory from materials brought there from the interior of China to be settled later.
- (6°) Produce of Chinese origin shipped at Tsingtao for Chinese Treaty ports, or coming from Chinese Treaty ports to Tsingtao and destined for the *hinterland*, to enjoy the same Coast Trade Duty privileges as at the Treaty ports.
- (7°) Goods carried by junks to pay the same Duties, Dues, and Likin as at other ports of the province.
- (8°) All Opium on arrival to be taken charge of by the Customs and stored in the Customs godown; on removal therefrom to pay the Tariff Duty and Likin—if for consumption in German territory to the German Government, and if for the *hinterland* to the Chinese Government.

By this arrangement Tsingtao practically enjoys the material advantages of a free port in addition to those of a Chinese Treaty port, *i.e.*, free importation of goods from abroad and from the *hinterland*; free exportation of produce raised in the Colony; and also the privilege of Coast Trade half-Duty treatment on goods of Chinese origin passing through the Colony on their way to China. I need only instance the Duty treatment of Chinese-grown Sugar re-exported from Hongkong to a Chinese Treaty port to show the advantage gained by this clause of the Agreement. Thus, through the location of the Chinese Customs at Tsingtao, produce entering German territory is practically dealt with by the Customs only when shipped; and therefrom it results not only that food supplies, building materials, and the many articles required for household and personal use from the *hinterland* are consumed Duty free, but that Tsingtao will also become the free depôt of the provincial staples such as Raw and Yellow Silk, Silk manufactures, Straw Braids, etc., which can be sorted, sampled, and improved here before shipment, the same as at a Treaty port, and of the produce of the mines in the interior, which are so closely connected with the welfare of Tsingtao—first of all, of the Coal from the mines of Wei-hsien and Po-shan, and, secondly, of those other minerals (Iron, Lead, etc.) which have already been located in different parts of the province of Shantung.

At the moment the port is still too young—the new harbour works not being completed and the railway, which is running only one train a day, not being advanced far enough inland,—trade is still too little developed to enable a reliable and final judgment to be formed whether the arrangement which has been worked out with much care and forethought will eventually realise all expectations; but judging by the rapidly increasing Customs Revenue and railway goods traffic, the outlook is decidedly hopeful of their full realisation.

The regulations at present in force are of a provisional nature; changes are being introduced from time to time to meet new developments of trade and commerce, of railway traffic, and shipping, and the future must decide what modifications or changes will eventually be necessary in order to make them finally acceptable to all parties. This, in brief outline, is the Agreement made between the two neighbouring Powers, China and Germany. I have thought it necessary to refer to it in the form of a preface to my Report, as it is the *raison d'être* of the Chinese Customs in the German Colony, without which this Report would perhaps not have been written.

(a.) REVIEW OF THE PERIOD.—The trend of events previous to the German occupation is difficult to follow, owing to the absence of reliable information; we may, however, assume that the days passed in the uneventful monotony characteristic of a country district, which, like many others on the rugged Shantung coast, devoted its time to trade, agriculture, and fishing. Being situated at a considerable distance from any important highway, the affairs of the Empire and the alarms of war, we may be sure, did little to disturb its repose. The opening of Chefoo as a Treaty port in 1863 no doubt diverted from Kiaochow a great deal of its commerce with the South. The town being, moreover, some little distance inland saw little of the doings of the outer world, and the accounts of what was occurring there probably fell on idle ears. To the little fishing village of Tsingtao, so called from the islet near the entrance to the bay which derives its name from its verdure-covered slopes, a change came with the arrival of a Chinese garrison in 1892. These troops under Brigadier-General CHANG KAO-YÜAN (章高元) commenced building forts and batteries fronting the sea, only a portion of which were completed before the outbreak of the China-Japan war. A large and deep cutting in the rock to the west of the new town of Tsingtao marks the site of what was probably intended to be a battery for disappearing guns. A long landing-pier (at which steam-launches could lie at the lowest water, and which is still in use), a powder magazine, four camps, and the General's yamên (used at the present moment as Government Offices) are all the result of this period. On the outbreak of the China-Japan war General CHANG and his troops, consisting of 2,000 men, were despatched to Liaotung, and the port was left without military protection until his return, in the winter of 1895, when the garrison was increased to 2,000 infantry and 1,000 artillery. After the termination of the war, the Japanese having decided to remain in occupation of Port Arthur and Weihaiwei, the Kiaochow Bay was lent by China to Russia, who was in need of a winter anchorage for her fleet. A Russian man-of-war called at Tsingtao during the winter of 1895, and in the spring of the following year a fleet anchored in the bay for a couple of weeks. This seems to have been the only occasion that Russia availed herself of the permission. In the spring of 1897 China, being without a naval base through the loss of Port Arthur and

Weihaiwei, decided to continue the work commenced in 1892, and to make Tsingtao the head-quarters of the Pei-yang squadron; but this intention was frustrated by the arrival of a German squadron under Admiral DIEDERICH, and the occupation of Tsingtao on the 14th November 1897 by Germany, in retaliation for the murder in the Yen-chou-fu prefecture of two German Roman Catholic priests. The landing of the German troops was unopposed by the Chinese, who must have been under the impression that its object was a field-day and landing manoeuvres, for the everyday barrack-yard drill was continued while the German troops were occupying positions commanding the different camps. An ultimatum was then sent to General CHANG to vacate his quarters within two hours. Seeing that opposition was useless, he complied with the demand, and, after protesting against the seizure, he marched off with his troops in the direction of Chi-mo.

The German flag was then hoisted and saluted at 2.30 P.M. on the 14th November. An expedition was at once despatched to Chi-mo, the district town of Tsingtao, the Chinese troops retiring before the advance of the Germans. After occupying this town the expedition marched to Kiaochow, and finding everything quiet there, it returned to Tsingtao.

The state of military occupation lasted until 6th March 1898, when a Treaty was signed by China and Germany, in which the portion of the Lao-shan peninsula south of the Pai-sha-ho, part of the Chi-mo district and measuring about 540 square kilometres, together with the Kiaochow Bay, was leased to the latter Power for a period of 99 years. The territory has been named by the Germans after the bay, Deutsch Kiautschou; and Tsingtao, its principal harbour, is also the seat of the Government. The principles which form the basis of government of the German territory are independence, as far as possible, from the home Government, freedom of trade, and a gradual withdrawal of State in favour of self government in proportion to the progressive development of the Colony.

To prevent overcrowding and to ensure a style of building suitable to the requirements of the port, intending purchasers of land have to submit sketch plans of the houses they intend to erect, and, before building can be commenced, detailed plans have to be submitted and approved of by the Board of Works. If these plans are deviated from, or if inferior building materials are employed, which might endanger the stability of the house, the authorities are empowered to suspend building operations. The land auction commenced on the 3rd October 1898, and in five days 105,390 square metres, at an average price of \$1 per square metre, were sold, the principal bidders being German firms wishing to establish themselves at the new port. Land sales have continued at irregular intervals since then, the prices paid for lots in the Chinese quarter of Tapaotao, where building was brisk, being at times as high as \$3.50 per square metre. The greater part of the land within the precincts of the town has now been sold.

After the frontier of the German territory had been definitely settled with the Chinese Frontier Commission, consisting of the Chefoo Taotai LI HSI-CHIEH (李希杰) and the Yen-i-ts'ao Taotai P'ENG YÜ-SUN (彭虞孙), with four Weiyüan, during the summer of 1898, Tsingtao was opened on the 2nd September 1898 as a free port open to the trade of all nations.

The first difficulty to be met was the regulation and appropriation of the real estate property. In order to discourage unnatural and unhealthy speculation in land, which might

raise the price of real estate to such a height as to prevent *bona fide* settlers from acquiring property at a reasonable figure, the Government issued a notification that no land could be sold by the original property holders—the Chinese—except to the Government. In this manner the Government gradually acquired all the land in the neighbourhood of Tsingtao at fair rates from the original owners, and reserved to itself the right of purchase in other parts of the *Pachtgebiet*.

The following rules were then laid down for the sale of land to intending purchasers:—

- (1°) The Government will sell at public auction lots of land, for the purchase of which application has been made and a minimum upset price has been fixed and publicly notified.
- (2°) The property to be sold to the highest bidder; the Government to have the prior right of repurchase should the owner wish to sell again.
- (3°) Sales of property must be reported to the authorities; and if sold at a higher figure than the original purchase money, 33½ per cent. of the difference must be paid to the Government.
- (4°) If after 25 years the property is still in the hands of the original owner, 33½ per cent. of the increase in value may be levied by the Government.
- (5°) Assessments of the value of land will be made from time to time.

The justification for these measures must be looked for in the low prices paid by the first purchasers, and to the fact that the State, which at present bears the whole cost of constructing the roads, canalisation, afforestation, etc., would otherwise not be a participator in a future rise in the value of real estate in the Colony. Should the value remain stationary, the Government draws no advantage; but if the value increases through circumstances which have not been brought about by the purchaser, but by the Government and the prosperity of the community—the interests of both being identical,—a share in the increase is by this regulation reserved to the authorities.

GOVERNMENT.—The head of the Government is the Governor, at present a naval officer of post-Captain's rank. He is the head of the Executive, and is assisted by the Colonial Secretary (*Civilkommissar*) and the Colonial Secretary for Chinese affairs (*Civilkommissar für Chinesische Angelegenheiten*). The law courts are presided over by a Judge, who dispenses justice according to German law, to which all inhabitants of Tsingtao are amenable, excepting Chinese, for whom a special code applicable to Chinese conditions and circumstances has been formulated. The other chief Government departments are the Treasury and Audit Department (*Intendantur*), Public Works Department (*Bauverwaltung*), Land Office, Police, Harbour, Forestry, and Public Health Departments.

The Government, in addition to the financial support from grants voted by the Reichstag, derives its income from the following sources of revenue:—

- (1°) The land tax, which is calculated at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum on the assessed value. (This does not apply to land outside of Tsingtao still under cultivation by the Chinese, on which the taxes have been remitted for the present.)

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- (2°.) Harbour and light dues on all vessels visiting the port, amounting to 2½ cents per ton, collected by the Harbour Department.
- (3°.) A tax on all Opium imported for consumption in the Colony, equal to the Duty and Likin levied at the Chinese Treaty ports. The collection of this tax has by agreement been placed in the hands of the Imperial Maritime Customs, and by fixing the tax at the same figure as in China, smuggling is rendered unremunerative.
- (4°.) Licenses on hotels, restaurants, opium divans, abattoirs, etc., besides shooting and dog licenses.

In order to afford the Government the means of obtaining the views of the community in matters of public interest, a Government Council, or consulting committee, was formed in March 1899. This Council, in addition to the Governor and the heads of the chief departments, is composed of three members of the community, who are elected once a year. The first of these is chosen by the Government, the second by the non-Chinese merchants, and the third by the landholders paying a minimum of \$50 ground rent per annum. The formation of a consulting committee of Chinese merchants is also under consideration.

The garrison of the Colony of Kiaochow consists of one battalion of marine infantry with four companies of 250 men each, making a total of 1,000 men, and a battery of six guns field artillery, under the command of a Major. In addition, a company of mounted infantry was formed in 1901, to replace a Chinese company which did not prove a success and was disbanded; and, lastly, a detachment of coast artillery, consisting of 300 men, under a Lieutenant-Commander in the Imperial navy, was added for coast defence purposes.

(For description of Tsingtao and harbour, see under (h).)

(b.) CHANGES IN TRADE.—The Kiaochow Customs statistics go back to the 1st July 1899, the date the Custom House was opened at Tsingtao. They include both Native (junk) and Foreign (steamer) trade, and in that respect differ from the statistics of the Treaty ports as well as of Kowloon and Lappa. They comprise all Imports that actually went into China, and all Exports that left China, from this port, and do not include the consumption in German territory of either Imports or Exports.

The values of the trade for the two years completed during the decade are supplied in the following table, and may form a basis for comparison with the figures of future Reports:—

NET VALUE OF THE TRADE OF KIAOCHOW, 1900 AND 1901.

	1900.	1901.
	<i>Hk. Tls</i>	<i>Hk. Tls</i>
Foreign Imports.....	630,517	3,429,503 *
Native ".....	2,222,059	2,539,547
" Exports.....	1,104,574	2,761,870
NET VALUE OF THE TRADE..... <i>Hk. Tls</i>	3,957,150	8,730,920 *

* Including *Hk. Tls* 2,050,890 value of Railway Materials imported.

FOREIGN IMPORTS.—The following table shows the principal articles of Foreign origin imported, principally by steamer, during 1900 and 1901. This is practically a new trade, created by the opening of Tsingtao to steamer traffic, and, with the facilities afforded by railway transport to the interior, capable of greater expansion:—

PRINCIPAL FOREIGN IMPORTS, 1900 AND 1901.

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1900.	1901.
COTTON GOODS.			
Shirtings, Grey and White.....	<i>Pieces</i>	6,286	13,309
T-Cloths, 32 inches.....	"	4,982	16,764
Drills, American.....	"	1,273	9,071
Sheetings, American.....	"	5,033	25,706
Cotton Italians.....	"	1,190	9,256
" Yarn, Indian.....	<i>Piculs</i>	875	7,255
" " Japanese.....	"	12,440	27,925
SUNDRIES.			
Coal.....	<i>Tons</i>	2,822	3,334
Matches, Wood, Japan.....	<i>Gross</i>	142,708	228,990
Oil, Kerosene, American.....	<i>Gallons</i>	664,880	578,585

The articles most in demand are: American Sheetings, Cotton Yarn (especially the Japanese variety, owing to its cheapness), and American Kerosene Oil. An attempt was made to introduce Russian Oil, but without much success, and recently a steamer brought Sumatra Oil, which has so far not succeeded in ousting the popular favourite—Devos's.

The trade in Native produce is principally by junk, and only a very small proportion of it passes through Tsingtao, the greater part going to Taputou, the junk port of Kiaochow. The following table shows the principal items:—

PRINCIPAL NATIVE IMPORTS, 1900 AND 1901.

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1900.	1901.
Beans of all kinds.....	<i>Piculs</i>	120,939	79,072
Cotton, Raw.....	"	9,985	20,537
" with Seed.....	"	2,916	3,053
" Yarn, Shanghai.....	"	1,771	7,338
Grain of all kinds.....	"	224,316	53,809
Paper, 1st Quality.....	"	1,891	3,155
" 2nd ".....	"	18,654	39,434
" Jose.....	"	50,285	100,122
Sugar, Brown.....	"	4,308	7,770
" White.....	"	2,275	1,486

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The above articles form the bulk of the old trade which has been carried on at Kiaochow for centuries. The trade fluctuates according to the state of the harvest of each particular year, a bad harvest meaning an increase in the importation of grain from elsewhere and a decrease in other commodities, for the purchase of which there would then be little surplus cash. A good harvest means a large Export trade, a decline in the import of grain, and, with more ready money available, an increase in other classes of Imports. The returns for 1900 and 1901 demonstrate this: the harvest was a failure in the autumn of 1899, and the trade of 1900, with the exception of grain, was bad; the harvest of 1900 was satisfactory, the import of grain declined, and other goods show an increase during 1901. The Export table also shows this feature:—

PRINCIPAL NATIVE EXPORTS, 1900 AND 1901.

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1900.	1901.
Beancake*.....	Piculs	3,301	35,562
Beans of all kinds*.....	"	7,109	26,115
Bristles.....	"	203	288
Cabbages, Shantung*.....	Pieces	774,609	1,350,981
Caps, Felt*.....	"	321,337	620,576
Fruits, Fresh*.....	Piculs	81,146	58,033
Ground-nuts*.....	"	11,155	30,953
Hides, Cow.....	"	669	1,135
Oil, Bean*.....	"	29,161	37,093
" Ground-nut*.....	"	54,803	114,903
Pigs, Salted*.....	Pieces	13,555	7,250
Seeds, Melon*.....	Piculs	20,814	44,136
Straw Braid.....	"	1,870	3,435
Vermicelli*.....	"	3,270	6,773
Walnuts*.....	"	17,191	18,738

* Principally exported by junk.

The articles in which Foreign merchants are principally interested are Silk, Straw Braid, and Bristles. Silk has so far found its way to this port in such small quantities as not to merit inclusion in the above table. It may, however, be of interest to repeat what I wrote in 1900 regarding the Silk trade of Shantung, as the conditions have not changed, and the railway has not yet reached the Silk districts.

SILK.—"The article next in importance, Silk, should likewise find its way gradually here by rail, seeing that the line will be running through the chief Silk districts of this province and past the principal Silk marts—Liu-t'ung, Ch'ing-chou, and Chou-ts'un. Liu-t'ung (柳 禮), in the Ch'ang-i (昌 邑) district, about 80 li† north-east of Wei-hsien, is a most important manufacturing centre for Pongees and Cotton Cloth, which have an extensive sale in the neighbouring provinces—Chihli and Honan. Its trade with Peking alone, paid for by bankers drafts, amounts to Tta 300,000 monthly, and its annual trade is valued at about Tta 8,000,000. It is the principal market of the province for the 'Wild Raw Silk,' as it is called by the trade, the product of the

† 3 li = 1 English mile.

Attacus Pernyi moth, fed on the leaves of the *Quercus castaneefolia*, *Mongolica* and *Dentata*. The greater portion of this Silk produced in Shantung is grown not far from Tsingtao, on the slopes of the mountains visible across the bay to the south-west, in the Kiaochow, Chu-ch'eng, and Chü-chou districts. It is all bought up, chiefly in the form of Cocoons, by Ch'ang-i brokers at Chu-ch'eng (諸 城) and Chü-chou (宮 州), and conveyed on pack-animals *via* Kiaochow and Ping-tu to Liu-t'ung, distant about three days journey northward of this port. Considerable supplies of Wild Raw Silk are also derived from the Honan and Shansi provinces as well as from Kwantung, whence it is brought by junks. Ch'ing-chou (青 州) and Chou-ts'un (周 村), which will be stations on the railway line, are the principal markets for the Yellow Silk produced by the *Bombyx mori* moth, fed on mulberry leaves. The Ch'ing-chou district produces Silk to the value of about Tta 2,000,000, chiefly at Wu-ching (五 井) and Yeh-yuan (野 園), in Lin-ch'u-hsien (臨 朐 縣). A considerable portion of this Silk is conveyed to Chefoo overland, while the Pongees manufactured from it are mostly for Native consumption, going westward to Chi-nan-fu, and thence to Chihli and Honan. Chou-ts'un derives its supply of Yellow Silk chiefly from the more distant districts in this province—from Mêng-yin (蒙 陰), I-shui (沂 水), T'ai-an (泰 安), I-chou (沂 州), and T'êng-hsien (滕 縣), which produce fine quality Silk; and from Hsin-t'ai (薪 泰) and Lai-wu-hsien (萊 蕪 縣), whose Silk is coarse. In the immediate neighbourhood of Chou-ts'un, at Wang-ts'un (王 村), there is also a small quantity of the Wild Raw Silk grown and manufactured into Pongees, which are considered the finest in Shantung. At Chou-ts'un the Silk collected from these districts, so far as sold for export, is packed into boxes and conveyed overland to Chefoo, where it is sorted into three qualities: the whole of the best quality is reported to go abroad, the medium quality is chiefly for Shanghai Silk looms, and the third quality goes to Canton, where it is worked into Silk Braid and Cords. Chou-ts'un, too, manufactures a considerable quantity of Pongees, Silk Thread, Cord, Braid, etc., also Felt Caps, Hats, and Shoes, Brassware, etc., chiefly for Native use; it is, besides, the greatest distributing centre in the north of Shantung for Foreign as well as Native goods. It receives Piece Goods, Cotton Yarn, Iron, Matches, and Kerosene from Chefoo by way of the small seaport Yang-chiao-kou (羊 角 溝), at the mouth of the Hsiao-ch'ing-ho (小 清 河). The sea-borne cargo is discharged at Yang-chiao-kou into small flat-bottomed boats, called *hsiao-p'ing ch'uan* (小 平 船), which convey it 200 li up river to So-chên (索 鎮), whence it is transported by carts and pack-animals to Chou-ts'un, 50 li distant. The trade of Chou-ts'un is estimated at Tta 15,000,000. The produce of these three places—Liu-t'ung, Ch'ing-chou, and Chou-ts'un,—especially its Silk Cocoons and Pongees, is nearly all conveyed by cart or pack-animals, even that portion going to Chefoo. Owing to the risks and dangers of the sea journey, especially those of shipment on the shallow northern coast, where vessels are compelled to lie a long way off the shore, Chinese merchants prefer the safer, though longer and more expensive, transport by land. Seeing that Liu-t'ung is five, Ch'ing-chou seven, and Chou-ts'un eight, days journey from Chefoo; that the first is but a short day's journey from the railway station, Wei-hsien, and that the two last named are to be stations on the line which will be able to bring their produce here in a day,—it is reasonable to assume that not only will a considerable portion of this staple (which is exported from Chefoo to the value of about Tta 3,000,000 annually) gradually come this way by rail, but that the portion grown in this

immediate neighbourhood will also come here direct, without making the long and expensive *détour* via Liu-t'ung."

STRAW BRAID.—The Straw Braid trade is also in its infancy, but promises to assume larger dimensions in the future. In my 1899 Trade Report I remarked concerning this article: "Of Straw Braid, the other big staple of this province, Chefoo exports at present about 40,000 piculs annually, valued at about *Hk. Ta* 1,500,000. The chief producing region is the northern seaboard of Lai-chou-fu and the lowlands extending south as far as the Kiaochow and Chi-mo districts, including the German territory. The chief mart for this staple is Sha-ho, near Lai-chou, about 240 *li* north of this port. Its brokers collect the article in this and the neighbouring provinces and convey it thence overland, where it is sorted, repacked, and conveyed either by sea from the small seaport Hu-t'ou-yai (虎頭崖), about 30 *li* distant from Sha-ho, or overland by carts and mules to Chefoo. Sha-ho (沙河) is about four days journey by the high road from Chefoo, and only one day from the nearest railway station, Wei-hsien. In so far, at any rate, as the Braid is produced in this immediate neighbourhood and near the railway line, it should reach this port more quickly and cheaply than Chefoo. In addition to quick, safe, and cheap transport by rail, Exports shipped at Tsingtao will have the advantage of direct steamers to Germany and favourable Customs treatment there in virtue of being shipped from a German port. It is true trade cannot be diverted in a day from old-established trading centres and routes, but it requires no prophet to predict that under the above-stated conditions trade is bound to follow the railway; and what holds good of Coal, Silk, and Straw Braid will hold good of many other Exports, which are only waiting for cheap means of transport to find a market."

The exports of Straw Braid during previous years were as follows: 1899, 222 piculs; 1900, 1,264 piculs; and 1901, 3,085 piculs.

Five Straw Braid merchants have already opened agencies at Tsingtao, and this new route once established a gradually increasing trade may be confidently expected.

(c.) **REVENUE.**—The following table shows the Revenue collected by this office during the 2½ years of its existence:—

FOREIGN DUES AND DUTIES COLLECTED, 1899-1901.

YEAR.	IMPORT, exclusive of Opium.	EXPORT, exclusive of Opium.	COAST TRADE, exclusive of Opium.	OPIMUM.	OPIMUM LIKIN.	TOTAL.
	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>
1899 *	7,776.5.9.3	2,339.2.7.8	294.2.1.5	36.0.0.0	96.0.0.0	10,542.0.8.6
1900	21,646.2.2.2	3,691.0.1.1	1,214.5.0.2	5.1.0.0	13.6.0.0	26,570.4.3.5
1901	47,158.7.3.2	6,911.7.3.9	931.0.0.4	51.4.3.5	126.4.0.0	55,179.3.1.0
TOTAL, <i>Hk. Ta</i>	76,581.5.4.7	12,942.0.2.8	2,439.7.2.1	92.5.3.5	236.0.0.0	92,291.8.3.1

Six months.

NATIVE DUTIES AND LIKIN COLLECTED ON JUNK CARGOES, 1899-1901.

YEAR.	IMPORT.		EXPORT.		TOTAL.	GRAND TOTAL, FOREIGN AND NATIVE.
	Duties.	Likin.	Duties.	Likin.		
	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>
1899 *	10,376.5.7.1	2,594.1.4.3	11,718.5.1.6	2,929.6.2.9	27,618.8.5.9	38,160.9.4.5
1900	15,388.8.8.5	3,847.2.2.2	17,522.8.7.2	4,380.7.1.9	41,139.6.9.8	67,710.1.3.3
1901	27,515.2.8.4	6,878.8.2.3	24,720.0.9.5	6,180.0.2.4	65,294.2.2.6	120,473.5.3.6
TOTAL, <i>Hk. Ta</i>	53,280.7.4.0	13,320.1.8.8	53,961.4.8.3	13,490.3.7.2	134,052.7.8.3	226,344.6.1.4

* Six months.

There is not much to be said on the Foreign Duty figures; the trade is new, and the demand for goods of Foreign origin will continue to increase with the development of the railway. Exports will find their outlet at Tsingtao in increasing quantities the more the advantages of safe and rapid transit by rail are appreciated by the Natives in the interior; but time must be given them before they will give up their old and accustomed routes, which with their conservative ideas they still consider the best.

The junk Revenue shows a marked increase from 1900 to 1901; this must be principally attributed to the poor harvest of 1899 (the produce of which was shipped in 1900) and the Boxer troubles. The harvest of 1900, on the contrary, was excellent, and the shipments during 1901 in consequence large. The development of the railway, which will bring new producing districts within easy reach of Kiaochow, should prove of benefit to this trade also.

With the transfer of the Native Customs administration at the different Treaty ports to the Maritime Customs, it may be of interest to show what results have accrued from the change in the Kiaochow district. In former years the average amount of Duties collected by the joint Kiaochow and Chi-mo Customs, now under Foreign administration, was reported to the Chefoo Taotai as *Ta* 20,000 per annum. This sum did not include the taxes collected as *Ch'uan-kuei* or *Ch'uan-fei* (船規船費), which went into the pockets of the local territorial and Customs officials and their staffs. In addition, about *Ta* 6,000 were collected yearly as Likin, making a total Revenue of about *Ta* 26,000.

The tariff at present in force has been provisionally fixed at one-half of the old Treaty Tariff, and for unenumerated articles 2½ per cent. *ad valorem*, which includes Likin, the former *Ch'uan-fei* taxes having been abolished. Notwithstanding this low rate of taxation, the collection for the six months of 1899 after the opening of the Custom House showed an increase of nearly *Ta* 2,000 over that formerly reported for a whole year. In 1900—a bad year—it was nearly double, and in 1901 the collection was 2½ times more than that formerly reported.

We therefore have here the best possible proof that a systematic and honest administration can, without the imposition of heavy taxes, raise the Native Customs Revenue to a height which would have been impossible under the old *régime*.

(d.) OPIUM.—The quantity of Foreign and Native Opium imported into the interior *vid* Tsingtao is so small that it does not deserve mention.

The Opium consumed in this neighbourhood is nearly all Native grown and comes from almost every district of the province. The principal producing centres are in the west and south-west of Shantung, in the Ts'ao-chou (曹州) and Yen-chou (兗州) prefectures. The chief mart and distributing centre is at Chin-hsiang (金鄉), in the Chi-ning (濟甯) department, where, from estimates supplied to me, about 1,300 piculs of Native Opium are sold annually. Another producing and distributing centre is at Fêng-hsien (豐縣), in the Yen-chou prefecture, but the quantity sold there is considerably less than at Chin-hsiang.

This Opium is locally known as *Hsi Tu* (西土), or Western Opium, and the term also includes Opium coming from the adjoining provinces of Kiangsu, Honan, and Shansi. In addition to the Western Opium, which has the reputation of being superior in quality, we find the poppy grown all over the province, generally in small garden patches, sufficient for the personal requirements of the cultivator and his family, but rarely on a more extensive scale. The consumption of Opium of the Kiaochow district, with a probable population of 300,000, has been estimated at about 70 piculs per annum, of which the greater part is Native grown. The above figures are, however, not reliable, and I give them with due reserve. The retail price of Native Opium at Kiaochow is from 300 to 350 large cash a *liang*, or from 4,800 to 5,600 cash a catty, equal to about \$6 to \$7; the wholesale price is about \$550 a picul.

Small quantities of Indian Opium find their way to Kiaochow. I have not seen any labels, but presume that the drug comes overland from Chefoo.

(e.) THE MONEY MARKET.—The currency of this region is copper cash, sycee silver, and dollars—the last mentioned, formerly unknown, having been imported in large quantities since the German occupation of Tsingtao, as shown by the following table:—

TREASURE IMPORTED AND EXPORTED AT THE PORT OF TSINGTAO, 1898-1901.

	IMPORTED.				EXPORTED.			
	1898.*	1899.	1900.	1901.	1898.	1899.*	1900.	1901.
	Hk. Ta	Hk. Ta	Hk. Ta	Hk. Ta	Hk. Ta	Hk. Ta	Hk. Ta	Hk. Ta
Dollars.....	132,500	512,767	782,941	377,968	...	53,455	75,818	43,798
Sycee.....	1,500	113,852	464,890	265,360	...	120,200	21,541	10,100
TOTAL, Hk. Ta	134,000	626,619	1,247,831	643,328	...	173,655	97,359	53,898

* Six months.

I am indebted to the courtesy of the manager of the Deutsch Asiatische Bank at Tsingtao for the figures in the foregoing table for 1898 and the first half of 1899.

The Chinese, at first suspicious and distrustful, are now accepting the Foreign coin at Kiaochow and Kao-mi and other places along the line of railway, and transports of dollars follow in the wake of the Foreign engineers living in the large towns in the interior soon to be brought into direct communication with Tsingtao.

The sycee silver of Kiaochow—元寶—is renowned for its purity, and sycee shoes from other places are only accepted at a discount. It is cast in shoes of about 50 taels each. The characteristic features in the appearance of a Kiaochow sycee shoe are a broad upper surface and comparatively short ears. The Kiaochow tael is heavier than that of Chefoo, the exchange ratio being *Chefoo K'ung-ku* (公估) Ta 100 = *Kiaochow Ta* 98.642, and the exchange with the Haikwan tael standard, *Hk. Ta* 100 = *Kiaochow Ta* 105 = *Chefoo Ta* 106.40.

Owing to the difficulty experienced in exchanging other silver, the Kiaochow sycee is practically the only silver seen in the neighbourhood. The Deutsch Asiatische Bank at Tsingtao has imported Shanghai shoes, but they do not appear to be popular; and the Chin-chou shoes (錦寶), which are current in Chefoo, as well as other varieties, are always melted down and recast when they arrive at Kiaochow.

There is no public assaying office (公估) as at Chefoo, and melting is carried on in private establishments, the charge for casting shoes being 150 large cash a shoe.

The smaller ingots, shoes, lumps, and broken pieces of silver known as *yen-ko yin* (鹽銀), *Sungkiang yin* (松江銀), and *sui-pai* (碎白) are current to a certain extent.

The value of copper cash compared with sycee silver has, owing to increased demand and short supplies, continued to rise in value. The farmer wants his money in cash, and the sudden appreciation in the value of this coin after the autumn harvest shows that there must be a large demand. In my Trade Report for 1899 I have instanced as typical the case of Wang-t'ai, the chief ground-nut oil market, situated south-west of Kiaochow, to which during the season for selling the oil 90 million cash are sent from Kiaochow.

The maximum and minimum rates of exchange between the Haikwan tael and copper cash during the past 10 years, as supplied to me from Native sources, were:—

	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Maximum.....	1,660	1,606	1,591	1,470	1,383	1,323	1,341	1,312	1,507	1,333
Minimum.....	1,522	1,509	1,412	1,305	1,297	1,151	1,094	1,155	1,189	1,129

The purchasing power of the Haikwan tael is directly dependent on the value of the copper cash, the standard currency of this district; with the gradual increase in value of this coin, the purchasing power of silver as represented by the Haikwan tael must necessarily fall in direct ratio.

(f.)

(g.) POPULATION.—The Foreign population of Tsingtao is estimated at 600, the garrison accounting for about 1,500 more; no official census having been taken yet, the figures are only approximate. The component parts of the civilian population are Government and Customs officials, merchants, architects and engineers employed by the Government and by the railway and mining companies, missionaries, mechanics and foremen working on public works in the naval yard and on the railway, hotelkeepers and shopkeepers, artisans, etc. Some of these being employés of the railway and mining companies are not resident in Tsingtao, but come and go from time to time. Another portion being engaged on harbour and other public works at present in progress cannot be considered as permanent residents, but will return to Germany on the completion of these works. As is usually the case with young colonies, there is besides a roving element, a sort of flotsam and jetsam, which comes and goes, seeking employment with more or less success.

The advent of Foreigners has naturally brought a large increase in the Chinese population. Thousands of coolies coming from different parts of the province have flocked here, attracted by the high wages paid for manual labour; but with the completion of the principal roads, the number of these men has considerably receded during the last six months. There is, however, always work for carpenters, masons, stonemasons, and other kinds of skilled labour, also for servants, all of whom can command good wages. The ordinary Shantung coolie receives 25 cents a day, skilled labourers from 30 to 50 cents, and personal servants from \$3 to \$15 a month. In addition to the Shantung population, which is a very unstable and fluctuating one, there is quite a colony of southern Chinese, mostly from Shanghai and Ningpo, with a sprinkling of Cantonese, who find employment here as mechanics, shopkeepers, boys, cooks, etc.: a good southern mechanic, such as a blacksmith or tinsmith, earns from 80 cents a day and upwards; a "boy" gets \$15 to \$20 a month, and a cook \$20 a month and more.

In addition, there are the shops and hong, both Shantung and southern, which have been established in the new and flourishing suburb of Tapaotao, and in the Chinese quarter of Tai-hsi-chên and Tai-tung-chên.

In all, the Chinese population of Tsingtao and its suburbs may be estimated at 14,000. The population of the two Chinese towns in the vicinity—Kiaochow and Chi-mo—and the occupation of their inhabitants have not changed, to any appreciable extent, since the occupation of Tsingtao as far as I am aware.

(h.) LOCAL IMPROVEMENTS.—It would lead too far and be beyond the scope of this Report to give a detailed description of the improvements made in this neighbourhood since the German occupation, and I will therefore only state, in brief outline, what has been achieved during the last three years.

Town of Tsingtao.—The narrow portion of the Tsingtao peninsula, which offered the advantage of a sea frontage on two sides and an absence of steep and rocky hills, was selected as the most eligible site for a town to be built on a European plan. The grading and levelling of the streets, which, where possible, were to run at right angles to each other, was commenced in 1898; and although all have not yet been completed, some of the main streets are already

macadamised and others sufficiently levelled to permit of carriage traffic. At the same time house building has been pushed on with great activity, especially by private individuals; so that by the end of 1901 a considerable portion of the European and nearly the whole of the Chinese town has been built over. The latter, known as Tapaotao, is the principal business quarter, and is situated near the small and large harbours.

The drainage has been planned on an extensive scale, calculated to meet the requirements of a large town. The streets and many of the houses are lit by electricity supplied by an electric station, which, having already proved too small to meet the demand, is to be superseded by a large one now under construction.

Water mains are laid along the principal thoroughfares, and it is proposed to have water also laid on in the houses. The water supply is pumped from a number of artesian wells in the sandy bed of a watercourse about 2 miles distant from Tsingtao to a reservoir on the top of one of the neighbouring hills, whence it is distributed in iron pipes to different parts of the town.

The principal public buildings completed are the church (a temporary edifice), two large barracks for the troops, a military hospital (which covers a large area of ground), court of justice (temporary), post office, public school, seamen's home, prison, etc. The Government Offices are to be commenced in the spring of 1902. There is a repairing-slip, and naval dockyard for repairing smaller vessels; the temporary premises will be later on removed to the new harbour, where the construction of a large dockyard, with floating dock, is planned. During 1901 cables were laid by the German telegraph steamer *Podbielski* to Chefoo and to Shanghai, so that Tsingtao is now independent of the Chinese land lines.

Mention must be made of the highly interesting experiment to afforest the denuded hills surrounding the town. The task is a difficult one, owing to the want of rain during the greater part of the year and the sterility of the rocky soil; but, thanks to the exertions of the Forestry Department, the trees planted during the last three years—mostly pines, oak, and Spanish chestnut—have made satisfactory progress.

Small Harbour.—A harbour for small coasting steamers, junks, etc., has been built at the north-west end of Tapaotao, with a pier 160 mètres long, able to accommodate two steamers, one on either side; a branch railway forms the connexion with the main line. The pier has been used by steamers under Government charter for discharging heavy ordnance; but the regular coasters prefer to load and discharge in the outer Tsingtao anchorage, where the Lighter Company has its temporary premises and where the merchants godowns are situated.

Large Harbour.—The future harbour of Tsingtao is situated to the north of Tapaotao, about 1½ miles from the Foreign residential quarter. In the winter of 1898 the breakwater, measuring 2,690 mètres in length and 5 mètres in width, was commenced. Its completion is expected early in 1902. The surface enclosed by the breakwater is about 1½ square miles, and the area to be utilised for harbour purposes, and which is now being dredged by three dredgers to the required depth of 10 mètres, about 8,600 square yards.

Two stone piers, the first 1,395 and the second 1,230 mètres in length, are now in course of construction. The one will be reserved for steamers loading coal, and the second for general cargo. There will, besides, be ample room for warehouses on the ground to be reclaimed.

In view of the magnitude of the work, several years must still elapse before the harbour can be completed.

(i.) WATER APPROACHES.—The approaches to the port of Tsingtao and the Bay of Kiaochow were carefully surveyed by the German Naval authorities in 1898-99. Only a part of the Kiaochow Bay has a sufficient depth for sea-going vessels, the western, northern, and north-eastern portions falling dry at low water. These extensive mudflats, covering an area of nearly half the bay, are intersected with a number of channels, which drain off the surface water when the tide is running out and are only navigable for the small Native craft which trade with the villages on the shores of the bay. The most important of these channels leads in a series of curves in a generally north-westerly direction to the junk port of Kiaochow, known as Taputou (塔埠頭), or Matou (碼頭). Large junks have to anchor outside the entrance to this channel in the centre of the bay, on account of a bar which at low water has a depth of only a few feet, and lighter their cargoes into large flat-bottomed sailing sampans. Taputou is situated at the extreme upper end of this channel, about 40 *li* from the bar, in a *cul de sac*, which is only accessible to sampans and small junks at high water, the bed of the creek being left dry after the tide recedes. The mud which drains off the surrounding flat, and the absence of a through channel to wash it away, cause a gradual silting up of the creek, which if not deepened artificially at certain periods is left nearly dry even at high water, except at spring tides or when a strong southerly wind is blowing. Owing to this obstruction, vessels are kept at Taputou from one spring tide to another, resulting in loss and delay to the trade of the port. The merchants, some of whom have large interests at stake, are therefore obliged to have the creek dredged for the distance of about 1 mile, where deeper water is reached, at public expense. As the bed is left perfectly dry at low water, this is not an especially difficult task, although, with the usual primitive methods employed by the Chinese, it is rather a long and wearisome undertaking.

In the 5th year of KUANG HSÜ (1879) a continuance of heavy rains flooded the country surrounding the town of Kiaochow to such an extent that artificial means had to be adopted to drain off the accumulated waters. At a cost of 15,000 strings of cash (about \$18,000) a canal was dug from the gates of Kiaochow to the creek at Taputou, and the latter being almost dry it was deepened at the same time.

In the 18th year of KUANG HSÜ (1892) the Taputou Creek had again silted up, and the funds available—viz., 4,000 strings of cash (\$5,000), collected by means of the *ho kung chüan* (河工捐), or river-conservancy subscription, from the large Ningpo and Fuhkien junks, each vessel paying 2,000 large cash a trip—being insufficient to cover the expenses of dredging the creek, the five firms interested in the southern trade advanced a further sum of 4,000 strings of cash to complete the work. This advance has not yet been fully repaid, and the creek has again silted up to such a degree as to cause great inconvenience to shipping. The accretion of alluvial mud in the northern portion of the Kiaochow Bay makes Taputou more difficult of access every year, and the time must come when Taputou, like Kiaochow before it, must cease to be a seaport. It is to be hoped that in the meantime the important trade going through this port will come to Tsingtao, where the Government is offering every facility in the shape of harbour and warehouse accommodation to prevent its being diverted

elsewhere. The Chinese merchants having vested interests at stake are reluctant to leave Taputou; but they will have to move with the times or forfeit the advantages of railway transit and good harbour accommodation now held out to them.

(j.) NEW AIDS TO NAVIGATION.—A provisional sixth-order light, lent by the Chinese Customs authorities, was erected, and has, since the 20th December 1898, been exhibited by the German authorities on the island of Cha-lien-tao, which is the first landmark sighted by vessels coming from the south. A first-order light is now in course of construction on this island. Another light was exhibited in 1900 in the extreme west end of the Tsingtao peninsula, known as Yuneisan, marking the entrance to the Kiaochow Bay; this is a dioptric, group-flashing light, lit by electricity, and is visible for a distance of 16 miles. A small red harbour light marks the islet in Tsingtao Bay; this light was also exhibited for the first time in 1900. There are 14 buoys marking rocks and shoals in the Kiaochow Bay; they are removed during the winter months, owing to drift-ice.

Before the completion of the railway between Tsingtao and Kiaochow a considerable steam-launch traffic was carried on with Taputou, where the railway company had established a dépôt for railway materials which were transported by means of a temporary line of rails to Kiaochow. To facilitate the navigation of the intricate Taputou channel, which is covered at high water, a number of small buoys were laid by the German harbour authorities. These have since been removed, owing to the stopping of the steam-launch traffic, and the sampans and small junks have had to fall back on their former method of marking the channel with bamboo poles stuck in the mud.

(k.) UNHAPPY OCCURRENCES.—I have not been able to obtain any reliable information as to the occurrences of any strange accidents, epidemics, or other disasters to the province during the first six years of the decade, and must leave the description of any such to my Chefoo colleague. I have already briefly mentioned that the effects of the China-Japan war were scarcely felt in this neighbourhood; that the Chinese garrison stationed at Tsingtao was withdrawn, and the inhabitants of the little village, finding their means of existence curtailed, closed their shops until the troops returned the following year.

On the 25th July 1896 H.I.G.M.S. *Itis* foundered, with all hands, off the South-east Promontory of Shantung. The tale of how these brave men met their death is so well known that it need not be repeated by me.

The Yellow River—"China's Sorrow" and the "Curse of the Province"—has been as unruly as before, and the Chinese attempts at river conservancy as bad as patching an old garment, where the repairing of one rent is speedily followed by another in some other part of the worn-out fabric. During the decade only four years have been reported free of inundations. From 1893 to 1896 slight floods occurred in different districts adjoining the river, but none of them were of a serious nature. In the summer of 1898, however, a continuation of heavy rains caused the river to rise in an alarming manner, with the inevitable result that the embankments gave way in five places before the pressure of the pent-up waters, which thereupon poured over and flooded several thousand square miles of country, bringing desolation and starvation to the wretched inhabitants.

PU LIANG (蒲良), Vice-President of the Board of War, was sent from Peking to the scene of the disaster, to organise a system of relief distribution to the sufferers, and contributions were also solicited by the missionaries resident in the neighbourhood, and food supplied to the starving population.

The appalling results of the floods of 1898 roused the Central Government to fresh exertions, and His Excellency LI HUNG-CHANG was sent to the scene of the disaster, to devise means of preventing further outbreaks. It is to be feared, however, that the heavy drain on China's purse to pay the Foreign war indemnities will prevent any attempt being made to control the river bed on scientific principles for a long time to come.

No further breaks occurred in 1899 and 1900, but in 1901 the districts of Chang-ch'iu (章邱) and Hui-min (惠民) were flooded by fresh ruptures of the river banks at Ch'en-chia-yao (陳家窩) and Wu-yang-chia (五楊寨).

Drought.—Although the year 1899 was free from floods, the province was visited by other scourges, viz., drought and locusts: the latter ate up everything that had been spared by the drought, and starvation stared the unfortunate inhabitants in the face. In August the rainfall measured at Tsingtao amounted to 2 inches; and the grain, which was beginning to form, withered away for lack of moisture. This district being situated near the sea did not suffer to the same extent as those further inland.

The Tsungli Yamén, being appealed to, relaxed the Treaty prohibition, and gave special permission for the export of wheat and rice from the Yangtze region to Tsingtao in consideration of a Custom House being here to control import and prevent export abroad. In all, about 240,000 piculs of foodstuffs, chiefly wheat, peas, and rice, were imported during the autumn, and to that extent shipping and trade benefited by the calamity. In consequence the people suffered less, and, assisted by the good wages many of them were earning at Tsingtao, they were able to purchase grain to plant their fields with in the following spring.

The Boxer Rebellion.—The origin and first aims of the society known as the Boxers, or *I-ho-ch'üan* (義和拳), are shrouded in mystery.

In 1899 the missionaries living in the interior of Shantung called public attention to a society of so-called patriots, who had dubbed themselves "Great Knives" (大刀) Society, and, later on, to another, called the "Harmonious Fist" (or, for short, "Boxer") Society, which, in reality, was nothing but another name for the same society. It is not improbable that this society was the outcome of a band of men organised by the ill-famed YÜ HSIEN while he was Prefect of Ts'ao-chou-fu, in West Shantung, to catch local banditti; and, when he was made Governor of Shantung for his zeal and energy, this body of men remained his faithful adherents and disseminated the new anti-Foreign doctrine, which, under the patronage of the Governor, at once sprang into popularity. The murder of the two German priests in South Shantung in 1897 and the murder of the Rev. Mr. Brooks in the Fei-ch'êng (肥城) district in the closing days of 1899, although their connexion with the Boxer Society has not been authoritatively established, heralded the coming storm. So much has been written on the Boxer rebellion, and its virulence having been more felt in other provinces than in that of its origin, Shantung, I do not feel it incumbent on me to enlarge too much on this subject.

I cannot, however, leave this unpleasant subject without throwing a few sidelights of a local nature on the main issue which was being fought out in the North.

On the 25th June the American Presbyterian Mission premises at Wei-hsien were burned and looted, the missionaries effecting their escape under cover of the night to the neighbouring coal mines at Fang-tzū (坊子), whence they and the mining engineers stationed there were sent under an escort of Chinese soldiers to Kiaochow, where they arrived on the 2nd July and were handed over to the German troops, who had been hurriedly pushed forward from Tsingtao to maintain order in the neighbourhood. On the 26th June a volunteer relief party, consisting of 20 mounted civilians and soldiers, was despatched from Tsingtao to the relief of the Foreigners congregated at Fang-tzū, who were thought to be surrounded and in danger. The expedition met with no opposition until the district town of Kao-mi (高密) was reached. Finding it impossible to continue on the main route, which was in the hands of the Chinese troops, it made a *détour*, after having led the Chinese to believe that it was returning to Tsingtao, and, striking across country, reached the district town of An-ch'iu (安邱), from which another attempt was to be made to reach Fang-tzū. Between Kao-mi and An-ch'iu the first opposition was met with, and after spending an anxious and sleepless night at the latter town, enlivened by the constant reports of firearms, the members of the expedition were informed the following morning that the persons they were intending to relieve had already been sent to Kiaochow under Chinese military escort. This news, although premature, was believed, and the expedition returned to Tsingtao without further mishap.

Great anxiety was felt at Tsingtao in the early part of July for the safety of the Roman Catholic missionaries stationed in the western and southern parts of Shantung, especially after a relief party, which had gone in a steam-launch to a port on the south coast, returned without any tidings. Reports, however, came in gradually accounting for the different missing men, who had fled partly south to Shanghai and partly overland to Tsingtao, where they arrived in an exhausted condition.

On the 27th June, two days after the burning of the Wei-hsien mission, the Swedish missionaries at Kiaochow, alarmed by the persistent but unfounded reports of a Boxer invasion, left their homes and took refuge at the Customs station of Taputou, which for a couple of days presented the unusual appearance of an overcrowded hostelry. A small detachment of soldiers was promptly sent to Taputou by launch on the 28th June, and the German-Chinese company pushed forward by the land route to Kiaochow, thus reassuring the missionaries, who thereupon returned to their homes in that city.

In the meantime the Colony of Tsingtao was placed in a position of defence. Earthworks were hastily thrown up on the surrounding heights and points of vantage connected with the town by telephone, sham night attacks were practised, a plan of defence prepared, and a volunteer corps formed. However, the neighbourhood remained quiet, notwithstanding the many alarming rumours of advancing Boxer hordes and the presence of red-girdled ruffians in the villages and towns in the vicinity. We must thank our fortune for having had an energetic, clear-minded, and able ruler of the province of Shantung, to keep the peace and repress attempts of revolt and lawlessness, even in the districts far from the seat of Government,

during that troublous period. But for his presence the preparations for defence made at Tsingtao would, in all likelihood, have been put to a practical test, for the later expeditions against the villages near Kao-mi bore ample proof that the villagers were under the influence of turbulent and dangerous elements, who with their fanatical belief in their invulnerability would have led a forlorn hope against any position defended by modern artillery. We cannot be too thankful that this did not happen.

As it was, Tsingtao suffered a temporary inconvenience in the delay to the progress of the railway construction and of the mining operations. The machinery, etc., left behind by the mining engineers on their sudden withdrawal from the Wei-hsien coal-fields was, however, on their return in the autumn, handed back to them in good condition by the local officials. On the other hand, the supplying of stores, provisions, and other necessities to the expeditionary corps operating in the north was an unexpected and lucrative source of gain to the Tsingtao mercantile community.

Storms.—The Colony was visited by two severe storms in 1900: the first, on the 26th May, reached the force of 12, and did considerable damage to the houses of the town; the second, on the 14th October, was a cyclone with a small diameter but of a great violence—it came from the north-west across the bay, and unroofed nearly all the houses situated in its track. The weather was fine, when the cyclone appeared in the shape of a black cloud, travelling with great rapidity; within the space of five minutes it had crossed the town and disappeared seawards. On the 4th-5th of August 1901 a storm from the southward, the remains of a typhoon, did much damage to the new bunding, to the pier, and to the shipping anchored in the outer bay. The spray from the heavy surf was carried a long distance and destroyed a great number of young trees and plants.

(L.) NOTEWORTHY EVENTS.—*Visits of distinguished Personages.*—In the spring of 1894 His Excellency LI HUNG-CHANG, Commissioner of Northern Trade, with the Pei-yang fleet, arrived at Tsingtao, to inspect the forts. Accommodation was specially built for him in the Native Custom House, but he did not avail himself of it, and remained on board the flagship.

During 1898 and 1899 H.R.H. Prince HENRY of Prussia, Commander of the German Squadron in the East Asiatic Waters, paid several visits to Tsingtao. On a visit paid in March 1899 he was accompanied by H.R.H. Princess HENRY.

In addition, Their Excellencies LI HUNG-CHANG and PU LIANG visited Chi-nan-fu, in connexion with the Yellow River calamity, in 1898, which has already been referred to under (b). The latter official had also to inquire into certain charges made against the Provincial Literary Chancellor, YAO PING-JAN (姚丙然), of having received bribes for granting *hsiu-ts'ai* degrees. The charges made were proved and YAO was cashiered.

(m.) HIGH DEGREES WON BY THE PROVINCE.—No degrees of *chuang-yuan*, *pang-yen*, and *t'an-hua* have been won by natives of Shantung during the decade. In the 18th year of KUANG HSÜ (1892), TUNG YÜN-LUNG (仝雲龍), a native of Chi-ning-chou (濟甯州), obtained the military degree of *ch'uan-lu* (傳臚).

(n.) LITERARY MOVEMENT.—The only important literary movement in the province during the decade is the establishment of a college on Foreign lines at the capital, Chi-nan-fu—the work and conception of His Excellency YÜAN SHIH-K'AI, the former Governor. At present it occupies temporary premises, but it is proposed to build a college outside the town later on. In addition to instructors in the different branches of Chinese literature, the college has secured the services of Dr. W. M. HAYES, formerly of T'eng-chou-fu College, who has a trained staff of six Chinese assistant teachers to work with him. There are at present 100 students, but it is hoped to double both the staff of teachers and the number of pupils next year. The present curriculum includes Chinese history and the classics, arithmetic, geography, and English; later on, however, French, German, algebra, geometry, astronomy, and modern Western history will be added. Sufficient knowledge of Chinese to qualify for a *hsiu-ts'ai* degree is necessary before admittance, and with the extension of elementary schools in the province, a certain standard of Western education will also be demanded of applicants. The college confers no degrees.

The following is a free translation of a circular from the Literary Chancellor of Shantung to the *hsiu-ts'ai* (licentiates) of the province:—

"It is generally known that responsibility taken seriously makes the road long, and ambitious scholars can attain virtue. After grief comes joy. You who are graduates must do your utmost. A man's disposition is originally good, which makes him different from the birds and beasts. If his words and actions are sincere he can travel as far as the regions of the wild tribes of the South. The doctrine of letters was propagated at the time of T'ANG YU (B.C. 2357: days of YAO and SHUN—the golden age). The persevering disposition began during the reign of the Emperor T'ANG KAO (B.C. 1766). During the time of CONFUCIUS the precepts of our ancestors were expounded. He edited the six canonical books, and explained the principles of the holy ones. He wrote 'Spring and Autumn,' and the malefactors trembled. His brightness was that of the sun and the stars, and the affairs of ancient times were made clear.

"If your names are enrolled in the National Academy you must uphold precedent and protect the doctrine. It is right that you should expound the principles of Confucianism, and if you stop the advancing flood it will not overthrow walls. The affairs of State are at the present in a difficult and perilous condition. There is a great want of talent. At the examinations for metropolitan graduate, essay writing is to be abolished; but the meaning of the canonical works is of great importance. Themes and questions will be set at the examinations on history and Western learning. From the *Pa-ku* essay writing the literature will be discussed in order. The annoyances of plagiarism have filtered down to the present time and have become empty words. This condition of affairs must of necessity be altered and removed from its old groove.

"You, scholars, who live in the neighbourhood of the Holy One's home and who study the Holy One's doctrine, must know that his canonical and historical

works are the root of all knowledge, and that natural disposition and principles are born with a man; an extensive inquiry into old and new things and a thorough knowledge of Foreign and Chinese affairs are necessary to become of great ability. Whatever studies are undertaken, the standard must always remain the canonical and historical works, which although few in words are yet vast in meaning. Their descriptions of times of prosperity and of rebellion, of gain and loss, of law and State polity, are clearly impressed in your minds. You must not allow yourselves to be led into doubt by heterodox doctrines. From now you must also commence to study Western learning; first, the Western method of calculating, astronomy, geography, surveying and map drawing, military and naval science, international law and Treaties, also electricity, chemistry, optics, and calorics. Each branch of learning must be investigated thoroughly and researches made, the aim being to make each of practical use. The Holy Sage said, 'The more one studies, the more one knows, and the greater the power of penetration.' Whenever I go on circuit to hold examinations I cause literature and learning to flourish; all responsibility rests on me. It having now been decided that both Chinese and Western learning are of importance, you are informed of the right way of achieving it. You, scholars, must remember that providence has endowed you with talent, and you must utilise the same. You must close your doors and be diligent, and you will have your reward. If you fear the difficulties and are indolent, the loss is yours. If your aspirations are after novelties and your desires for change, you are only digging a pit for you to fall into. The principal purport of learning is confined within the following five maxims: deep learning, investigation, careful reflection, clear discrimination, and sedulous work. These are the real and fundamental truths of learning. Scholars, therefore, exert yourselves.

"Selections from the Chinese Books of Learning."

- "(1.) The Seven Canonical Books, compiled by Imperial authority.
- "(2.) The Thirteen Canonical Books, annotated and explained.
- "(3.) The Four Books, annotated by CHU HSI.
- "(4.) The Five Books of Rites (biographical), by CH'IN HUI-T'EN.
- "(5.) 'Spring and Autumn,' important extracts by KU TUNG-KAO.
- "(6.) The Books from the Chêng I T'ang.
- "(7.) The History of China from the Chou to the T'ang Dynasty, with Imperial notes.
- "(8.) The History of China from the Chou to the T'ang Dynasty, by SSÜ MA-KUANG.
- "(9.) Another version of the above, by CHU HSI.
- "(10.) Continuation of the above, by PI YÜAN.

- "(11.) History of China, B.C. 2697 to B.C. 104; by SSÜ MA-CH'EN.
- "(12.) History of the first Han Dynasty, by PAN KU.
- "(13.) History of the later Han Dynasty, by FAN HUA.
- "(14.) History of the Three Kingdoms, by CH'EN SHOU.
- "(15.) Imperial Calendar, by CH'I CHAO-NAN.
- "(16.) The Three Encyclopædias of the present Dynasty.
- "(17.) Ta Ch'ing Dynasty Government Administration.
- "(18.) The Principles of Geography, by KU TSU-YÜ.
- "(19.) The Advantages and Disadvantages of the different Provinces, by KU YEN-WU.
- "(20.) The Imperial Atlas, by HU LIN-I (to be employed until a better atlas has been edited).
- "(21.) Maps and Histories of the *Fu, T'ing, Chou, Hsien*, during the Reign of CH'EN LUNG; by HUNG LIANG-CHI.
- "(22.) Imperial Arithmetic.
- "(23.) Relations with Treaty Powers (Arranged).
- "(24.) Relations with Treaty Powers (General), by CH'EN HSÜN.

"The above 24 works represent the canonical, historical, and administrative learning of China.

"[1901, autumn; printed in Ch'ü-tu-hsien (CH'ÜEH LI).]"

"Books on Western Learning."

- "(1.) Elementary Arithmetic.
- "(2.) Arithmetic.
- "(3.) Arithmetic with an unknown Quantity.
- "(4.) Trigonometry (six books).
- "(5.) Algebra.
- "(6.) The Works of TUNG FANG-LI.
- "(7.) Astronomy.
- "(8.) Elementary Geology.
- "(9.) Surveying.
- "(10.) Historical Tables.
- "(11.) National Revenues and Expenditure.
- "(12.) International Law.
- "(13.) Chemistry, Elementary.

- "(14.) Chemistry, Advanced.
- "(15.) List of Chemical Terms and Elements, Chinese and Foreign.
- "(16.) Electricity.
- "(17.) Electricity, Frictional.
- "(18.) The Electrical Fluid in Living Bodies.
- "(19.) Names of Steam-engines.
- "(20.) Elementary Principles of Steam-engines.
- "(21.) Physics Handbook.
- "(22.) Twelve Books on Military Science."

(c.) DEGREES ALLOWED TO THE PROVINCE.—No information procured in addition to that supplied by Chefoo in "Decennial Reports, 1882-91."

(p.) PHYSICAL CHARACTER OF PROVINCE, INDUSTRIES, AND TRANSPORT.—Shantung is one of the most mountainous of the coast provinces of China, and lacks all those advantages with which nature has so richly endowed its sister provinces, in respect of good and conveniently situated harbours and navigable rivers or waterways. In no province has trade and commerce had to contend with such difficulties of transport and shipment as in this. The few deep harbours it has are at its eastern extremity, far away from the producing regions, difficult to reach, and open roadsteads at best. The rich northern seacoast has no harbours worth speaking of—shallow by nature, it is being silted up more and more by the enormous sand masses which the Yellow River is now pouring into the Gulf of Pechili, as it formerly did further south into the Yellow Sea. The south coast has but one harbour or roadstead suitable for large vessels, the Kiaochow Bay, which also until now has but indifferently served as an outlet for the produce of the immediate neighbourhood only. Transport by land is even worse. One requires to have travelled in the country to realise the difficulties of the land transport—the miserable state of the cart and mule tracks, the hardship, the wear and tear to men and animals, and the risk, expense and delay to merchants and producers, even during the dry season. After a heavy rain all traffic has to cease for the time being, and ceases almost entirely during the wet summer months. Without roads worth the name, without waterways, without conveniently situated harbours, development of trade and commerce was impossible; and it is from this cause that Shantung has remained poor—its fertile soil, magnificent climate, and hard-working population notwithstanding. True, half of its area is mountainous; but these mountains are full of mineral wealth waiting to be raised, and their slopes are the feeding-ground of the silkworm, which produces the richest of all crops, valued at many million taels. The intervening valleys and lowlands have a fertile soil, producing wheat, beans, peas, millet, ground-nuts, maize, tobacco, indigo, hemp, fruit, etc., in great abundance; but a good deal of this wealth is now lying dormant for want of transport. If anywhere in China, the railway will work wonders here, and its inauguration will be followed by a development of trade and commerce and increased prosperity to the people surpassing

expectation. What is said above of the province as a whole is true also of this particular neighbourhood.

The Tsingtao peninsula, the greater part of which is covered by the Lao-shan range with its ramifications, belongs to the granite formation. Its highest peak, the Lao-ting, 1,130 mètres high, is the highest elevation in the eastern part of Shantung. To the north and north-west extends the large alluvial plain of Mid-Shantung, while on the west of the bay the granite formation reappears and extends in a south-westerly direction to the borders of Kiangsu. The rivers in the German territory consist of sandy watercourses, dry during the greater part of the year, but during the rainy season in July and August converted into mountain torrents. Rarely more than a couple of feet deep, they bring down quantities of sand and debris from the excoriated mountain sides, and form extensive fan-shaped sandbanks at their mouths which are gradually being pushed forward further and further into the Kiaochow Bay. The hillsides and valleys are scored by innumerable steep ravines cut into fantastic shapes by the action of the rain water. Like the rest of the China coast, the mountains are almost entirely denuded of trees. Patches of stunted firs are to be found here and there, but they were generally cut down and used as firewood before they had attained any height. Other trees found in the *Pachtgebiet* are the willow, poplar, walnut, oak, Spanish chestnut, mulberry, elm, plane-tree, maple, pride of India, ailantus, juniper, box, hawthorn, sophora japonica, etc., and of fruit trees, the apricot, peach, plum, cherry, apple, crab-apple, pear, pomegranate, persimmon, and the grape vine.

The following varieties of field crops are cultivated in the district: winter crops—wheat and barley; summer crops—peas and beans, ground-nuts, sweet potatoes, tall millet, small millet, hemp, maize, rice, taro, egg-plant, tobacco, indigo, garlic, and the celebrated Shantung cabbage. Foreign fruit, vegetables, and potatoes have thus far not been cultivated to any extent, but no doubt will soon become lucrative, as the demand is considerable and everything is being done to assist would-be cultivators.

The fauna is that of North China.

Oxen, donkeys, mules, and ponies are used as beasts of burden and draught, and are also to a great extent bred in the province. Pigs are fattened in large quantities for export; sheep are herded for Foreign consumption. The waters of the bay and along the coast teem with fish, especially during the months of April and May. The principal kinds of fish, mollusca, and crustacea caught in the vicinity are soles, cod, a variety resembling the mackerel, *tai* or *tao yü*, jelly-fish, a small species of sea slug (*bicho de mar*), crabs, prawns, lampreys, cockles, mussels, and a small kind of oyster of a very delicate flavour.

Of beasts of prey, there are the wild cat and civet cat, wolves (which are supposed to exist sporadically in the more inaccessible parts of the Lao-shan), foxes, badgers, weasels, etc. Of game animals and game birds, there are hares, red-legged partridges, the usual varieties of wild fowl (which swarm in the shallow parts of the bay and on the extensive mudflats during the autumn and spring months), snipe and quail in the early autumn, and large flights of woodcock in April and October.

NOTEWORTHY PHYSICAL FEATURES.—The remains of an artificial canal have been discovered to the north-east of Kiaochow, connecting the Ku-ho, flowing south into the Kiaochow Bay, and the Kiao-ho, flowing in a northerly direction into the Bay of Lai-chou. This artificial waterway was constructed during the reign of KUBLAI KHAN, and was utilised for the transport of tribute rice from the South to the northern capital, thereby avoiding the dangerous sea route round the Shantung Promontory. The canal is now nearly dry, except during the rainy season, and serves as a drain to the low-lying districts north of Kao-mi. As a means of transport it has ceased to be of importance since the opening of the Grand Canal (*vide* Kiaochow Trade Report for 1899).

A low-lying district, known as the Hao-li (濠里), formerly a marsh about 70 *li* long by 40 *li* wide to the west of Kao-mi, was drained by an energetic District Magistrate of the name of T'ao in 1854, and a great portion of the reclaimed land is now under cotton cultivation.

Old maps of Shantung show a lake, called Po-mai-hu (百脉湖), lying a few miles north of Kao-mi. This lake was filled up 50 years ago, but the country being low, the summer rains collect in the hollow, and the water does not drain off the land for some time after the rainy season is over.

MINERALS.—Gold.—Ping-tu Mines.—The machinery imported for the working of these mines was, I am told, on the principle of extraction through quicksilver, the gold being found in a pure state in the quartz. In course of time, the quantity gained becoming less, the cost of extraction became proportionately heavier, eventually necessitating the suspension of work. Subsequently, gold was found in combination with sulphur, known as gold pyrites; but the Chinese, finding that the machinery they had was useless for gaining the gold when found in this combination, were unwilling to go to the expense of buying new machinery, and the mines were closed after an unsuccessful attempt had been made to export the pyrites for treatment in Europe. It is, therefore, by no means proved that the Ping-tu mines would not be profitable if properly and honestly worked. As a matter of fact, some 3,000 ounces of gold sand reaches Wei-hsien annually from this quarter, is there melted down, and thence sent *via* Tsingtao to Shanghai for sale.

Lead.—Lead has been found in different parts of the Poshan-Tzüchuan Valley, but the ore contains so small a per-centage of silver that the cost of extracting the metals cannot compete with the lead and silver mines of Australia and other countries.

Coal and Iron Mines.—See under (u.).

CLIMATE OF TSINGTAO.—The climate is that of North China—warm and moist during the summer, the heat being tempered by the proximity of the sea, and cold, dry, and windy during the winter. The thermometer ranges from + 32° to -11° Centigrade (91° to 12° F.); the barometer, from 780 mm. to 745 mm.; and the rainfall for the year ending 30th September 1901 totalled 414.8 mm. The following meteorological table, taken from the official publication of the Government, shows the maximum and minimum barometer and thermometer readings, and the rainfall, during the period October 1898 to September 1901:—

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

PERIOD.	BAROMETER.			THERMOMETER.			RAINFALL.
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	
	Mm.	Mm.	Mm.	° C.	° C.	° C.	Mm.
October 1898.....	772.1	753.2	764.8	25.2	7.5	18.3	4.3
" 1899.....	772.1	754.5	764.9	27.1	5.7	14.7	...
" 1900.....	773.1	755.7	764.4	24.6	5.5	15.6	91.2
November 1898.....	773.6	761.1	767.2	17.8	- 0.3	10.7	7.4
" 1899.....	774.7	759.9	768.2	19.7	- 1.8	8.0	2.8
" 1900.....	775.2	758.7	767.1	20.1	- 1.3	8.3	4.1
December 1898.....	777.7	759.8	768.0	13.9	- 5.5	3.2	8.5
" 1899.....	773.4	756.7	766.6	14.1	- 7.3	2.9	27.7
" 1900.....	775.7	761.2	769.5	14.0	- 7.3	1.8	53.4
January 1899.....	777.3	759.6	769.7	9.6	- 5.2	1.1	4.2
" 1900.....	779.8	762.2	771.9	7.5	- 11.0	- 3.8	1.6
" 1901.....	777.8	759.0	769.3	9.1	- 8.7	- 1.1	15.6
February 1899.....	773.5	760.5	767.2	12.4	- 6.1	3.2	8.8
" 1900.....	777.3	761.9	768.5	14.3	- 7.5	0.7	4.9
" 1901.....	779.5	760.7	768.9	10.6	- 10.2	- 1.8	...
March 1899.....	773.2	748.9	764.1	19.9	- 1.4	7.0	5.5
" 1900.....	773.5	749.3	764.3	14.7	- 4.5	4.2	3.2
" 1901.....	775.9	757.1	766.6	15.0	- 7.2	4.2	...
April 1899.....	777.7	752.8	761.0	26.1	0.7	11.8	1.6
" 1900.....	770.0	751.2	761.4	22.1	2.0	10.5	30.8
" 1901.....	766.7	749.4	759.8	20.9	1.8	10.2	45.2
May 1899.....	763.7	751.8	757.8	28.9	10.1	17.2	17.5
" 1900.....	762.2	745.5	754.8	29.0	9.2	16.1	96.4
" 1901.....	763.2	751.2	758.3	27.8	9.1	14.8	44.6
June 1899.....	762.2	745.6	753.7	29.6	15.3	21.4	105.6
" 1900.....	762.0	748.8	755.9	27.2	13.9	19.4	75.8
" 1901.....	758.7	744.8	753.9	28.7	15.2	20.2	50.7
July 1899.....	756.2	745.7	751.2	32.6	16.4	25.1	108.9
" 1900.....	759.1	745.4	752.0	32.3	19.7	24.1	125.0
" 1901.....	756.9	747.2	752.9	29.8	19.5	23.4	77.8
August 1899.....	759.3	746.1	754.8	31.4	16.1	25.0	55.2
" 1900.....	758.9	747.4	754.1	30.5	19.1	24.9	265.8
" 1901.....	759.9	746.3	754.7	31.2	18.7	24.9	28.6
September 1899.....	766.7	755.0	761.1	29.1	11.1	21.8	6.5
" 1900.....	768.7	756.3	760.1	30.0	11.6	22.3	4.7
" 1901.....	759.8	29.0	14.8	21.6	3.6
Oct. 1898 to Sept. 1899..	777.7	745.6	...	32.6	- 7.5	...	334.0
Oct. 1899 to Sept. 1900..	779.8	745.4	...	32.3	- 11.0	...	638.7
Oct. 1900 to Sept. 1901..	779.5	744.8	...	31.2	- 10.2	...	414.8

The climate is salubrious, and owing to the sanitary precautions taken by the Government—such as efficient drainage, removal of garbage, etc., separation of the Foreign from the Chinese quarter,—the danger arising from epidemics is reduced to a minimum.

INDUSTRIES AND MANUFACTURES.—I have endeavoured to group together in the following table the principal manufactures, commodities, etc., produced and raised in Shantung, showing the different places of origin, arranged according to prefectures. The table is necessarily incomplete, but in later Reports additions may be made and inaccuracies eliminated. It will, however, suffice to show what Shantung produces; and if a collection of these different articles could be made and exhibited in a provincial or, better, a national museum, a great step would be made towards bringing producer and consumer into touch with each other.

PRINCIPAL MANUFACTURES, COMMODITIES, ETC., PRODUCED AND RAISED IN SHANTUNG.

PREFECTURE	PRODUCTIONS	MANUFACTURES
Chi-nan-fu	Silver, iron, coal, yellow and white silk; cocoons, wheat straw, bristles, wool, cow hides, goat and sheep skins, medicines, dried lilies, ground-nuts, beans and peas, pears, dates, cabbages, alum (green, yellow, and black), dried persimmons.	Samshu, bean and ground-nut oil, beancake, cotton cloth, vermicelli, cow and ass glue, white nankeens, straw braid, rattan summer hats, silk piece goods and crape, cotton bags, cotton ribbons, woollen and felt blankets, felt caps.
Tai-an-fu	Silk, cocoons, wool, ground-nuts, hemp, vermicelli, medicines.	None.
Wu-ting-fu	Salt, raw cotton, lily flowers, medicines	Nankeens.
Yen-chou-fu	Silk, cocoons, china-root, Confucius stones (for inkstones)	Native silk damask, crape, lute-strings, earthenware.
I-chou-fu	Cocoons, cow hides, sheep skins, sesamum seed, ground-nuts, wool, salt, medicines.	None.
Ts'ao-chou-fu	Opium, lily flowers, medicines	None.
Tung-ch'ang-fu	Medicines, red dates, cow hides, sheep skins	Pongees.
Ching-chou-fu	Salt, saltpetre, cow hides, goat and sheep skins, medicines, cocoons, silk, dog skins, walnuts, red dates, cow bezoar, glass, red stone, white stone, alum (yellow, green, and black).	Silk ribbons, damask, nankeens, glassware.
T'eng-chou-fu	Salt, tea, gypsum, cow bezoar, white wax, iron	None.
Lai-chou-fu	Salt, wheat straw, agar-agar, emery, leaf tobacco, hemp, bristles, medicines, soapstone, crystals of different colours, tea crystal.	Samshu, straw braid, embroidered silk, silk ribbons, silk piece goods, pongees.

(g.) NATIVE SHIPPING.—The Kiaochow Bay has an extensive junk trade with the different ports and anchorages on the coast-line from the South-east Promontory to the mouth of the Yangtze, and also with Ningpo and Foochow. The trade with Ta-tung-kou and the mouth of the Yalu River in timber is of recent growth, originating in the large demand for building and railway purposes at Tsingtao.

The following table shows the number of Native vessels (junks and, as the smaller type of sailing junks are called here, sea-going sampans) entered and cleared at this Custom House since 1st January 1900, and the ports with which trade is carried on:—

Ports.	1900.		1901.	
	Inwards.	Outwards.	Inwards.	Outwards.
Shanghai	269	368	243	435
Huai-an	139	69	128	69
Hai-chou	1,270	989	1,103	984
South-west Shantung	351	250	972	1,183
Hsu-pu	41	56
Liu-ho	9	8	7	3
Yang-chou	28	128	18	47
North-east Shantung	127	99	275	259
Chinkiang	8	2
Foochow	20	20	43	27
Ningpo	26	27	43	39
Chefoo	38	40
Kwantung	55	43	124	134
Soochow	50	46	65	107
Newchwang	2
Tung-chou	81	45	41	69

Owing to the large number of small ports and anchorages along the coast, it has not been found possible to enumerate them all. In Kiangsu only the names of the departments or districts in which the ports are situated are given, whereas Shantung has been divided into two parts, viz., South-west Shantung, extending from the north boundary of Kiangsu to the Kiaochow district, and North-east Shantung, from Kiaochow to the Promontory.

The names of the junk ports on the Shantung coast, commencing from the North-east Promontory, are—

T'eng-chou prefecture (登州府):—

Yung-ch'eng district (榮城縣):

Li-tao (徂島).

Shih-tao (石島).

W'en-t'eng district (文登縣):

Chang-chia-pu (張家埠).

Hai-yang district (海陽縣):

Hai-yang (海陽).

Ju-shan (乳山).

Lai-chou prefecture (萊州府):—

Chi-mo district (即墨縣):

Chin-chia-k'ou (金家口).
 Ao-shan-wei (鰲山衛).
 Wang-ko-chuang (王哥莊).
 Shatszkou (沙子口) and
 Tengyao (登轎).
 Tsingtao (青島).
 Tsangkou (滄口).
 Nuku (女姑).

Kiaochow department (膠州):

Taputou (塔埠頭).
 Hungshihyai (紅石崖).
 Lingshanwei (靈山衛).
 Tachiangkou (大港口).
 Ku-chên-k'ou (古鎮口).

Ching-chou prefecture (青州府):—

Chu-chêng district (諸城縣):

Wang-chia-t'an (王家灘).
 Kuan-chuang-k'ou (官莊口).

I-chou prefecture (沂州府):—

Jih-chao district (日照縣):

Chia-ts'ang-k'ou (夾倉口).
 T'ao-lo-k'ou (騰維口).
 Shih-chiu-so (石臼所).
 Liang-ch'êng (兩城).
 An-chia-k'ou (安家口).
 An-tung-wei (安東衛).
 Shan-nan-t'ou (山南頭).

Controlled by Kiaochow
 Customs.

VARIETIES OF JUNKS.—1°. *Fuhkien Junks*, known as "Tiao Ch'uan" (刁船).—These have a carrying capacity of from 3,000 to 6,000 piculs (180 to 360 tons) if of the large type, and of 2,000 piculs (120 tons) if of the smaller type, and carry a crew of up to 26 men. They are three-masted vessels with a large high-peaked mainsail, a smaller foresail in the bow with a strong rake forwards, and a small mizzen perched on the elevated stern. Their lines are much finer than those of the usual cargo-carrying coasting craft seen at home. The cost of such a vessel amounts to about \$30,000.

As Fuhkien junks are not allowed to trade with Shantung, the owners of these vessels circumvent the law by taking out ships papers in the neighbouring provinces of Chehkiang, mostly at Hsiang-shan-hsien (象山縣), in the Ningpo prefecture.

2°. *Ningpo Junks*, known as "Ning Ch'uan" (甯船), are similar in appearance, size, and build to the Fuhkien junks. Those visiting this port generally have ships papers from Hsiang-shan-hsien, Chên-hai-hsien (鎮海縣), or Chin-hsien (鄞縣). The import cargoes brought by the Fuhkien and Ningpo junks consist principally of the coarser kinds of Chinese paper, crockeryware, bamboos, sugar, mats, and other southern wares; and they take away bean and ground-nut oil, beans, beancake, walnuts, melon seeds, vermicelli, dried persimmons, medicines, etc.

The following figures have been supplied to me by the Fuhkien and Ningpo Guilds at Kiaochow:—

Arrivals of Fuhkien and Ningpo Junks.

		FUKKIEN JUNKS.	NINGPO JUNKS.	TOTAL.
KUANG Hsü, 17th year (1892)		43	52	95
" 18th " (1893)		64	50	114
" 19th " (1894)		49	41	90
" 20th " (1895)		54	53	107
" 21st " (1896)		62	55	117
" 22nd " (1897)		44	50	94
" 23rd " (1898)		44	54	98
" 24th " (1899)		34	56	90
" 25th " (1900)		29	31	60
" 26th " (1901)		36	30	66

The losses incurred in exchange caused by the low rate of cash obtained at Kiaochow compared with the rate ruling in the South, and the higher value of the export cargo, which makes an equal exchange of southern for northern goods impossible, are stated to be the main reason for this falling off.

The Fuhkien junks labour under a serious disadvantage, in comparison with those from Ningpo, as regards credit. The latter, being consigned to the Kiaochow agencies, are merely cargo carriers, discharging at once, on arrival, into the godowns of the agent at Taputou and loading the export cargo waiting to be shipped. The agent does the financing and settles for the sale of the imports whenever the market is favourable. With the Fuhkien junks, the captain is at the same time the representative of the Foochow shippers (mostly small people); it is his duty on arrival to decide whether the cargo is to be sold at once, or whether a more favourable market price for his goods should be waited for. It therefore frequently occurs that such a junk remains at her anchorage in the bay, with her whole cargo on board, for weeks or even months, waiting for a rise in the market. As soon as the import cargo has been sold, the captain has sufficient capital in hand to purchase his export cargo. Extraordinary as this method of doing business may appear, it has been continued for many years, and it can only be accounted for by the want of enterprise or of capital of the Fuhkien merchants. In 1900 a Fuhkien junk was thus delayed for a period of two and a half months, waiting for a favourable opportunity to sell her cargo.

3°. "*Sha Ch'uan*" (沙船), from various Parts of Kiangsu Province.—These vary in size from 2,600 to 600 piculs carrying capacity, and are grouped, accordingly, in large, middle-sized, and small *Sha ch'uan*.

The largest *Sha ch'uan*, of which only a few call at this port, usually come from Shanghai. They can load about 2,600 piculs, carry a crew of 20 men, and cost *Tta* 10,000 and more. Their import cargo consists of cotton, and they usually clear in ballast. They take out papers at Shanghai, Soochow, and at Yen-ch'êng (鹽城) (in the Huai-an prefecture (淮安府)).

The middle size has a capacity of 1,500 piculs, with a crew of 15 men, and come mostly from Yen-ch'êng, Hai-chou, and Chao-ho, in North Kiangsu, with cargoes of cotton, jute, garlic, etc., taking out papers at Ju-kao (如皋), Yen-ch'êng (鹽城), Fou-ning (阜甯), etc., in North Kiangsu. Their export cargo consists of fresh fruit, cabbages, salted pigs, etc.

The small-sized *Sha ch'uan* carry 600 piculs and more, have a crew of seven men, and come mostly from Hai-chou and Ch'ing-kou, in North Kiangsu, and from Jih-chao, on the borders of South Shantung, with cargoes of jute, grain, garlic, etc. They load cabbages and fresh fruit (mostly pears) for the South during the autumn, and clear in ballast during the rest of the year.

Ships papers are taken out at Hai-chou and Jih-chao.

The *Sha ch'uan* are five-masted vessels, flat bottomed and of comparatively light draught, on account of the number of sandbanks off the coast of North Kiangsu, from which they derive their name.

4°. *Shantung Junks*.—(1.) *Sampan*.—The build of the junks changes as soon as the frontier of Kiangsu is crossed. From the extreme south of Shantung to the northern extremity of the Kiaochow district, we find a class of open vessel with a pointed stem and a broad stern, rigged with two or three masts, which goes under the name of sampan, or *chi-tzu* (鷁子). The largest kind of sampan has a capacity of 300 piculs, with a crew of seven men, and costs from \$400 to \$500; the smaller kinds, up to 200 piculs, with a crew of five or six men, cost \$150 to \$200. They trade along the coasts of South Shantung and North Kiangsu, and carry grain, garlic, jute, etc., as import cargoes, and mostly fresh fruit (during the fruit season) and cabbages as export cargoes. To protect the cargo mats are spread over the open hold. They take out ships papers at Hai-chou, Jih-chao, and at this Custom House.

A peculiarity of the Kiaochow sea-going sampans, probably derived from the Fuhkien and Ningpo junks, not otherwise seen in northern craft, is the two eyes painted on both sides of the bow.

(2.) *Kua-lou* (瓜蒌) or *Ting-yu* (丁油) *Junks* (a distinction being made according to whether the foremast is stepped in front of the hold or in the hold) are built in the districts of Shantung to the north-east of Kiaochow, and also in Kwantung (關東). They are clumsy-looking craft, usually with three masts, of low freeboard, and a long hatchway built up 3 or 4 feet above the side decks. They are very convenient for loading timber, and a certain number come from Ta-tung-kou with wood every year. The *kua-lou* (melon or gourd baskets) vary considerably in size; only the large ones, which carry a crew of 26 men, are seen here. They derive their peculiar name from the fact that they are built narrower in the middle than at both ends, with the object of paying a smaller proportion of Tonnage Dues to the Native

Customs, which base their calculations on the width of the vessel amidships. Those calling here usually have ships papers from Fu-shan-hsien (Chefoo) and Lai-chou-fu.

There is no form of insurance, either on the junks themselves or on their cargoes. Comparatively few total losses occur, as far as I can gather; but when the capital invested in a single junk and her cargo amounts to \$50,000 or more, as is the case with a fully-laden Ningpo junk, the risk run would seem to be excessive.

(r.) *NATIVE BANKS*.—*Hui Tui Chuang* (滙兌莊), commonly called *Shansi Banks*.—There are six of these establishments in the province of Shantung, viz, three in Chi-nan-fu and three in Chou-ts'un. They negotiate bills of exchange on other provinces, and have agencies all over the Empire. The cost of remittance is 2 per cent. and more, according to the distance the money is to be sent.

Ch'ien Pu (錢舖), or *Money-changers*, take the place of banks in this neighbourhood. Their principal business consists in exchange and loan transactions. There are 11 of these shops in Kiaochow city, belonging to one guild, which settles the rates of exchange between silver and copper cash daily. Rates on Chi-mo, Wei-hsien, Sha-ho, and other mercantile centres in this part of the province are also quoted daily, principally for the purposes of speculation, sycee being sent by cart from one place to another where exchange fluctuation occurs.

Money is lent to merchants at varying rates of interest for short periods, the lowest per-centages being charged in the spring, and the highest in the winter months, when money is tight, owing to the want of cash to pay for ground-nut oil and other autumn produce. For this purpose the year is divided into three unequal portions, called *chieh* (節)—from the 1st to the 3rd moon, from the 4th to the 6th moon, and from the 7th moon to the end of the year. For the whole or a fraction of the first period, 2 per cent. would be an average rate of interest; for the second, 3 to 4 per cent.; and for the third, which comprises half the year, 8 per cent. and more, the same rate of interest being charged on loans advanced during the 7th moon as on those advanced later, during the 10th, 11th, or 12th moon. The nearer the Chinese New Year approaches, the greater the want of money is felt and the higher the interest demanded. A loan for a whole year, if contracted in the spring, although unusual, could be effected at a cheaper rate, usually 10 per cent., or a little more than the interest demanded for, say, three months in the autumn or winter. The money shops themselves only give 8 per cent. for fixed deposits.

No security is demanded against loans, the "chop" of the firm to whom the money is to be advanced being considered binding. That the *Ch'ien Pu* have to reckon with defalcations and bad debts seems obvious.

Settling exchange beforehand is known as *ts'un k'ung* (存空), the Chinese characters signifying to "remain void," and is largely availed of at Kiaochow, notwithstanding the attempts made by the territorial officials to put a stop to it, on account of the amount of speculation the system led to.

The *Ch'ien Pu* are able to quote the exchange any number of months ahead. For instance, a merchant wishing to sell silver agrees to pay a rate of exchange on a certain date, and a note is made to that effect in the books of the money shop. When the date arrives, he pays his silver and receives cash at the rate agreed upon, irrespective of the rate of the day.

This practice, I am given to understand, originated in former years, when Kiaochow had a large trade with the South and large quantities of silver were imported to pay for Native produce. But for the distribution of the exchange over a longer period, each new importation would have had a disturbing effect on the money market.

(8.) NATIVE POST OFFICES.

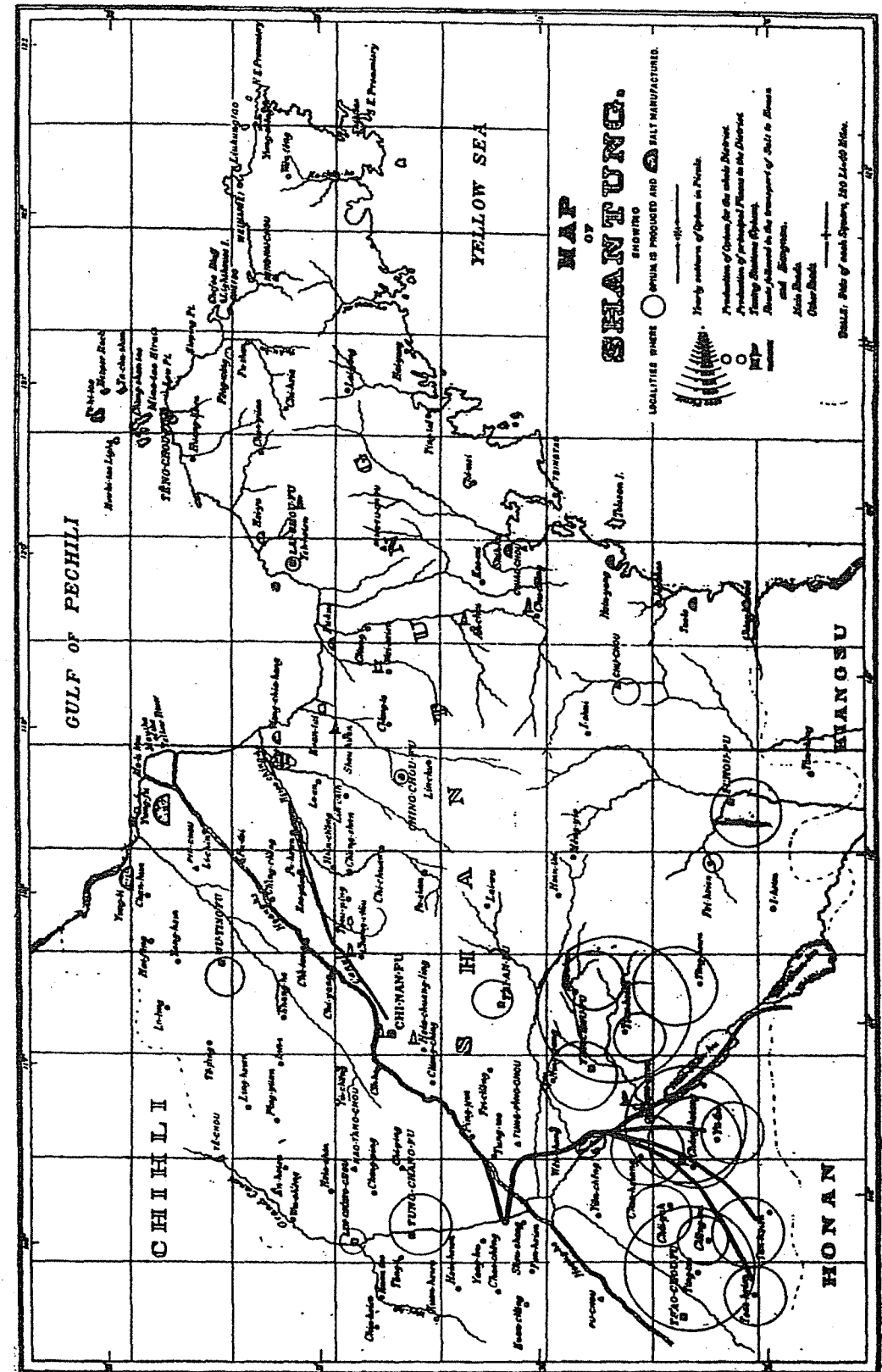
(1.) SPECIAL CHANGES IN CUSTOMS WORK.—This Custom House was opened on the 1st July 1899, and during this period no noteworthy changes in Customs work have taken place.

The Imperial Chinese Post Office was established in the Kiaochow district at the same time and together with the Custom House. The service is purely an inland one, the mails from the interior being handed over to the German post office at Tsingtao, for local distribution or transmission to Shanghai, Chefoo, and Tientsin by the subsidised German mail steamers calling at this port, and, *vice versa*, mails coming from these ports being received from the German post office and forwarded to their inland destination. The mails at present are transported by rail as far as Wei-hsien; from this point they are carried by couriers, who travel at an average speed of 100 $\frac{1}{4}$ (=33 miles, or 50 kilometres) *per diem*.

The following table shows the courier routes at present operating in the province of Shantung, the time taken for the forwarding of letters, and the connexions with other postal routes:—

POSTAL COURIER ROUTES IN SHANTUNG.

ROUTE.			KIAOCHOW DISTRICT CONTROL.	
	Recurrent.	Duration.		
I. Tsingtao-Chinan :—				
To Kiaochow	Daily	3 hours	} By rail.	
" Kao-mi	"	5 "		
" Wei-hsien	"	9 "		
" Chang-lo	"	1 day.		
" Ching-chou	"	2 "		
" Chou-ta'un	"	3 1/2 "		
" Ts'ou-p'ing	"	4 "		
" Chi-nan	"	5 1/2 "	Connecting at Chi-nan with the Chinkiang-Tientsin line.	
II. Tsingtao-Laiyang :—				
To Chi-mo	Daily	1 day.	} Connecting at Lai-yang with Chefoo once a week.	
" Lai-yang	Weekly	2 1/2 "		
III. Kiaochow-Ichou :—				
To Chu-ch'eng	Thrice weekly	1 1/2 days.	} Connecting at I-chou with the Chinkiang-Tientsin line, and with the Sa-chien, Tai-erh-chuang, T'enghsien-Chining line thrice weekly.	
" Chü-chao	"	3 1/2 "		
" I-chou	"	5 1/2 "		
IV. Kiaochow-Shaho :—				
To Ping-tu	Twice weekly	1 1/2 days.	} Connecting at Sha-ho with the Chefoo-Chinan line thrice weekly.	
" Sha-ho	Thrice weekly	2 1/2 "		
V. Weihsien-Chüch'eng :—				
To Chu-chou	Twice weekly	1 day.	} Connecting at Chü-ch'eng with the Kiaochow-Ichou line; at I-chou with the Chinkiang-Ichou and T'enghsien-Chining line.	
" Chü-ch'eng	"	2 "		



The extension of inland post offices and courier routes is gradually and systematically progressing. In 1899 offices were opened at Kiaochow, Chi-mo, Ping-tu, Wei-hsien, Ch'ing-chou, Ts'ou-p'ing, Chi-nan, I-chou, T'eng-chou, Huang-hsien, Lai-chou, Sha-ho, Ning-hai, Weibaiwei, W'ên-ting, Shih-tao, Lai-yang, T'ai-an, M'ang-yin, Yen-chou, Chi-ning, and P'eng-hsien. 1900 was the Boxer year, and, although the main routes were kept open, further attempts at extension were impossible. In 1901 the offices closed during the Boxer troubles were reopened. The extension continues to be pushed forward, new routes are being opened, and ere long it is hoped that every town in the province will have its post offices. The accompanying map shows the existing courier routes.

(14.) RAILWAY AND MINING DEVELOPMENT IN SHANTUNG.—1°. *Railway.*—The railway and mining concession granted by the German-Chinese Treaty of the 6th March 1898 was transferred by the German Government to a syndicate, comprising the largest banking and industrial establishments of Germany, on 1st June 1899. This syndicate founded the Shantung Railway Company on the 14th June 1899, with a capital of 54 million marks, for the construction of the line Tsingtao-Chinanfu *via* Kiaochow, Kao-mi, Wei-hsien, and Ch'ing-chou, with a branch line to Po-shan—in all, about 450 kilometres in length. Under the terms of the concession the railway company (as well as the mining company) has to pay the Kiaochow Government, in consideration of the large expenditure it incurs for harbour works, coal wharves, etc., a certain fraction of the surplus net gain after having paid a 5 per cent. dividend to shareholders. The management of both companies is to be at Tsingtao. To begin with, a single line is to be built, of 1.435 metres width; but sufficient land has been purchased for doubling the line later on. The time fixed for the completion is five years. The construction was commenced in September 1899; and although considerable difficulties were encountered, to begin with, in landing the heavy material in the open roadstead, where no facilities for the work existed—and later on, during the Boxer troubles, when work had to be stopped and a portion of it was destroyed by the populace,—the first section, Tsingtao-Kiaochow (83 kilometres), was opened on the 1st April 1901; the second, Kiaochow-Kaomi, was opened on the 1st September 1901; and it is confidently expected that Wei-hsien will be reached in June 1902, and Chi-nan-fu before the due date in 1904. The traffic on the line, both as regards passengers and goods, is already considerable, and although only one train has been running, at a speed of about 20 kilometres per hour, the short experience proves conclusively that it will be remunerative to the shareholders and of immense benefit to the people and to the province.

2°. *Mining.*—The mining concession extends to an area of 30 *li* on either side of the railway which is being built with German capital from Tsingtao to Chi-nan-fu, and will pass through two known coal-fields—Fang-tz'ü, about 170 kilometres (= 102 English miles) from Tsingtao, and the valley of Po-shan (博山) and Tz'ü-ch'uan (淄川), about 290 kilometres (= 168 English miles) from Tsingtao, adjoining which are the iron mines of the T'ieh-shan (鐵山), near Chin-ling-chên (金陵鎮). Whether there are any other mineral deposits within the area of the concession which would be worth exploiting is not known; at any rate, the mining company has secured two such important fields that they will be sufficient to monopolise its attention for many years to come.

Wei-hsien Coal Mine.—The coal-fields of Wei-hsien are remarkable for the irregularity in the distribution of its coal seams; and the preliminary boring trials have shown that the whole of the surrounding country has at one time been the scene of violent volcanic eruptions, which have so disturbed the coal deposits that nearly a whole year was lost by the mining engineers in finding a continuous seam.

The theory advanced to account for the pockets of coal embedded in the granite which were discovered and have been exploited by the Chinese is that the action of water on the uneven surface of the subsidiary bed of granite caused deposits of coal-forming vegetable matter in the crevices, where they could not be washed away, leaving the upper surface of the granite bare. The remains of the Chinese shafts are distributed in small clusters where these pockets are found, and are separated from each by the outcropping granite. As the Chinese miner cannot go deeper than 180 feet, on account of his inability to cope with the increasing volume of water which has to be removed to permit of work being carried on, it is not known how deep these pockets are. Their lateral area is, however, so small that the Chinese have practically ceased to mine them; and as they were valueless as mines worked under modern principles, the engineers turned their attention to other places where coal had not been found on the surface. After boring for a year, during which only granite and volcanic tufa were found, they struck a seam of coal about 9 feet thick, at a depth of 450 feet, running from north-east to south-west. Although the boring trials are not yet completed, it is now certain that the seam is continuous and of sufficient thickness to prove remunerative. A shaft is being sunk, and mining will commence shortly; but it is not likely that coal will be placed on the Tsingtao market before the autumn of 1902, as the first outturn will be retained for the use of the railway. The Wei-hsien coal is a bituminous coal, containing about 30 per cent. of gas; it burns with a clear flame, and does not cake like the Japanese coal, and it has also the advantage of having a lighter smoke.

Po-shan.—The valley of Po-shan, in which are situated the district towns of Po-shan (博山) and Tzū-ch'uan (淄川), is about 20 miles long, and, from a couple of hundred yards at Po-shan, nearly 6 miles broad where it joins the North Shantung plain, near Chou-ts'un (周村). The whole of this valley is a vast bed of coal, situated at a deeper level in the middle and appearing on the surface at the edges, where it has been forced upwards by the pressure against the limestone of the surrounding hills. At the north-west exit of the valley the coal bed is interrupted by a chain of limestone hills; but it commences again and continues in undiminished quantity in a westerly direction, for another 20 miles, between the main range on the south and the Chang-pai-shan on the north. In this valley and its branches are situated the mining centres of Pu-chi and Pu-chuan.

South of the narrow gorge at Po-shan another valley opens out, in which is situated the Hei-shan (黑山), or Black Hill, in contrast to the Hung-shan (紅山), or Red Hill, so called from its ruddy appearance, which lies to the north-east of Tzū-ch'uan, near the entrance of the valley.

The best quality of anthracite coal is found near the surface in the Hei-shan Valley, and it is on account of this coal that Po-shan has been famous. It is principally used in

manufacturing coke, which, owing to its lightness, can be transported further by wheelbarrow than the heavier coal. Po-shan coke is used at Ch'ing-chou-fu, Chou-ts'un, and at Chi-nan-fu, and has even been traced to Kiaochow, a distance of 500 li. Unfortunately, the Chinese have of late been unable to cope with the waters in the shafts, and most of the mines have been obliged to suspend work. The method of removing the water is extremely primitive. A basket woven of willow twigs is passed from one man to another, and is then emptied into a ditch at the mouth of the coal pit. As the galleries are low and narrow—about 3 to 4 feet in diameter,—the miners are obliged to work in a sitting position, and during the time that water is being removed from the mine other work has to cease. The side galleries are short, and are shored up with millet stalks supported by short wooden props. In a country devoid of timber, the cost of shoring up extensive galleries, and, in addition, the difficulty of removing the water, is so considerable that the miners are prevented from going far into a seam of coal. The cost of timber may also account for the small diameter of the galleries, which, if enlarged, would need extra support.

The coal, loaded on low, wooden trucks, with iron wheels manufactured at Chin-ling-chên from T'ieh-shan iron, is run along the galleries on wooden ways until the bottom of the main shaft is reached, and is then hoisted by wicker baskets attached to a pulley on a framework built over the mouth of the pit, pulled by horses.

The Tzū-ch'uan coal mines, worked by Foreign machinery supplied by an English firm, were, as mentioned in the last Chefoo Decennial Report, closed in 1891. In 1898, the machinery having been partially repaired at the Chi-nan Arsenal, it was put up by a Cantonese at the foot of the Hung-shan, at a place called Nan-p'u, and used instead of a pumping apparatus. The Native coal pits, being situated at a higher level, were thereby drained of the water which had put a stop to their working. Work has been resumed with great vigour, and the Cantonese draws a royalty for keeping the mines dry. The Hung-shan surface coal is not as good in quality as that from the Hei-shan mines, and is not suitable for coke. The best quality lump costs from 5 to 6 large cash a catty at the mouth of the pit; 2nd quality, about 3 cash; and dust, from 1½ to 2 cash. The transport by wheelbarrow has been calculated at about 12 cents a ton per li, and this must necessarily limit the consumption of coal to a very small radius, notwithstanding its low initial cost. At Chi-nan-fu, for instance, a ton costs \$20.

The Shantung Mining Company, in the supposition that the superior Hei-shan coal which crops out at the head of the valley is the continuation of the main coal bed, is attempting to strike it at a lower level, nearer the main railway line which crosses the entrance of the valley at Chang-tien, thus reducing the distance of the subsidiary line from the mine to the junction with the main line at Chang-tien. Boring trials are now being carried on between that point and the foot of the Hung-shan with, I hear, very satisfactory results.

Eight miles to the north-east of Chang-tien are the important iron ore deposits of the T'ieh-shan, which at present furnish the ore for the Chinese iron-smelting works of Chin-ling-chên.

DEVELOPMENT OF TELEGRAPHS IN SHANTUNG.—In addition to the telegraph offices existing at the opening of the decade (i.e., Chefoo, Weihaiwei, Sha-ho, Wei-hsien, Chou-ts'un, Chi-nan-fu,

Chi-ning-chou, Kiaochow, and Tsingtao, the following offices were opened: in 1892-93, Têng-chou-fu (登州府), T'ê-chou (德州), Lin-ch'ing-chou (臨清州), and Ts'ao-hsien (曹縣); in 1897, An-shan (鞍山) and A-ch'êng (阿城); in 1898, Ch'ing-chou-fu (青州府) and I-chou (沂州); in 1899, Huang-hsien (黃縣); and in 1900, T'ai-an-fu (泰安府).

CHI-NAN ARSENAL.—The Arsenal is situated 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ north-west of the town. The director is LIN CHIEH-CHING (林介景), an Expectant Taotai, who is assisted by 10 minor officials. Work is carried on in eight departments, viz., (a.) gun department, (b.) cartridge department, (c.) casting department, (d.) forging department, (e.) rolling department, (f.) powder department, (g.) electric department, and (h.) carpenters shop.

It may be said, briefly, that the Arsenal is able to make cannon, rifles, and cartridges, besides machinery, boilers, powder, electric lamps and batteries, etc., from a given pattern; but the work is rougher and not so neatly finished as that of Foreign firms. At present, cartridges and powder are being manufactured, besides machinery for use in the Arsenal. The mining machinery at Tzû-ch'uan was supplied by the Chi-nan Arsenal, also the bugles and many of the arms used by the Shantung troops. They are also experimenting with the Mannlicher rifle, with a view to manufacturing it at the Arsenal, but it is not yet known with what success.

FOREIGN-DRILLED TROOPS.—The Foreign-drilled troops of Shantung consist of eight battalions, of 1,008 men each; they are five battalions of infantry, one battalion of cavalry, one battalion of artillery, and one battalion of engineers. Each battalion is commanded by a major (*tung-tai*), and is composed of four companies of 252 men, with a lieutenant and three non-commissioned officers. The soldiers only uniform is a sleeveless coat, of various colours and patterns, bearing the name of the battalion and company. The rifles used are the Mannlicher and the Mauser. The drill is German, with a few slight modifications. Recruits must be under 25 years of age, 5 feet (Chinese) in height, and able to lift 100 catties.

HSIN-HO.—A canal was cut a few years ago from Huang-tai-chiao 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ li to the West Gate, but the work was unsatisfactorily done, the canal not being deep enough for the larger boats; in consequence, transshipment is necessary, and it is therefore little used. It is now proposed to dredge out the entire canal this spring, so as to enable steam-launches to run up to Chi-nan city. The depth of water at present varies greatly in different places and at different seasons; there are many shallows where the greatest depth is less than 1 or 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet. It is stated that there are about 1,000 boats employed on the river. The trade is chiefly in imports, such as salt, cotton, piece goods, kerosene oil, coal (from Po-shan), matches, and sundry Foreign articles. The exports are practically nil.

(v.) **MISSIONARY SOCIETIES.**—There are 13 Protestant and three Roman Catholic societies engaged in propagating the Gospel in the Shantung province.

The following table shows, approximately, the names of the different missions, both Protestant and Roman Catholic, with the stations, number of missionaries, schools, converts, etc. (I am indebted to the Rev. P. D. BERGEN, of the American Presbyterian Mission, and to the Rev. Pater BARTELS, of the German Catholic Mission, for the information contained in the same):—

APPROXIMATE STATISTICS OF MISSIONARY WORK IN SHANTUNG, TO 31ST DECEMBER 1901.

(a) Protestant Missions.

MISSION.	NATION-ALITY.	NO. OF STATIONS.	NAMES OF STATIONS.	NO. OF MISSION-ARIES.	COLLEGES AND HIGH SCHOOLS.	ELE-MENTARY SCHOOLS.	TOTAL NO. OF PUPILS.	HOSPI-TALS.	TOTAL NO. OF PATIENTS ANNUALLY.	TOTAL NO. OF BAPTIZED NATIVE CONVERTS.
China Inland Mission...	British...	2	Chefoo, Ning-hai.....	15	...	3	40	1	12,000	50
American Presbyterian ..	American	7	Chefoo, Têng-chou, Tsingtao, Wei-hsien, I-chou, Chi-ning-chou, Chi-nan.	51	6	95	1,140	6	48,000	6,000
" Baptist, South	"	3	Têng-chou, Huang-hsien, Wei-hsien.	15	3	5	150	2	10,000	350
Plymouth Brethren	British...	2	Weihaiwei, Shih-tao, Wên-táng.	10	1	5,000	50
Berlin Mission	German ..	2	Tsingtao, Chi-mo	7	1	1	130	100
Weimar Mission	"	1	Tsingtao	5	1	1	45	1	(?)	(?)
English Baptist	British...	2	Ch'ing-chou-fu, Ts'ou-p'ing...	29	3	50	730	2	16,000	5,000
" Methodist	"	1	Lao-ling	6	1	29	360	1	5,000	1,000
American Congregational	American	2	Pang-chia-chuang (Tê-chou), Lin-ch'ing.	14	1	12	186	2	12,000	900
" Methodist	"	1	T'ai-an-fu	4	800
Anglican Mission	British...	2	T'ai-an-fu, Ping-yin	8	1	8	63	500
Gospel Mission	American	3	T'ai-an-fu, Chi-ning-chou, Ning-yang.	10	26
Swedish Mission	Swedish..	1	Kiaochow	6	(?)
		29		180	17	204	2,844	16	108,000	14,776

NOTES.

- (1.) The China Inland Mission statistics do not include schools existing for European children at Chefoo.
- (2.) A station may be defined as a centre where Foreign missionaries are in permanent residence.
- (3.) The above statistics do not include figures showing Chinese contributions for support of the Gospel. There are nine or ten Chinese pastors supported by their own people; also, they have subscribed liberally for the support of schools and hospitals.
- (4.) The German missions have done excellent work during the short time they have been here; they had to build, to learn the language, and prepare a good deal of literature.

(b) Roman Catholic Missions.

MISSION.	NATION-ALITY.	NO. OF STATIONS.	NAMES OF STATIONS.	NO. OF MISSION-ARIES.	COLLEGES AND HIGH SCHOOLS.	ELE-MENTARY SCHOOLS.	TOTAL NO. OF PUPILS.	HOSPI-TALS.	TOTAL NO. OF PATIENTS ANNUALLY.	TOTAL NO. OF BAPTIZED NATIVE CONVERTS.
Mission of South Shan-tung.	German ..	7	Yen-chou-fu, Chi-ning-chou, I-chou, Kiaochow, Tsingtao, Wên-chan, P'o-li-chuang.	43	2	6	139	16,531
Franciscan Mission of North Shantung.	Italian ...	4	Chi-nan, T'ai-an, Wu-ting-fu, Tung-ch'ang-fu.	15	2	11	100	18,290
Franciscan Mission of East Shantung.	French...	3	Chefoo, Ch'ing-chou-fu, Lai-chou-fu.	27*	1	45	(?)	2	(?)	12,400†
		14		85	5	62	239	2	...	47,221

* Including 16 sisters.

† Including catechumens.

Schools.—The schools of the Protestant missions are of two kinds, viz., elementary and high schools. The pupils of the former study Chinese books, arithmetic, geography, and sometimes a little English. These schools are usually connected with out-stations, and their chief aim is to prepare pupils for the high schools. The length of time that the pupils remain at school varies greatly. They are generally able to fill such positions as page, boy, t'ingch'ai, etc.

The high school pupils usually go through a five or six years course in Chinese language and literature, mathematics, geography, astronomy, chemistry, history, and sometimes English. These schools, however, vary considerably. T'eng-chou and Ch'ing-chou Colleges are the most advanced in Shantung; Wei-hsien also has an elaborate course; while Chi-nan, Chi-ning, and I-chou are somewhat less advanced. Generally speaking, graduates of these schools may secure good positions as secretaries, clerks, interpreters, telegraph operators, teachers, etc., and they demand high wages.

The seminaries of the Catholic missions are solely for the training of Native priests. The course is from nine to ten years. The first five or six years are devoted to the study of Chinese, Latin, arithmetic, geography, history, and music. Having passed the examinations in these subjects, the pupil has to study two years philosophy and two years theology. The elementary schools of the Catholic missions vary but slightly from those of the Protestant missions.

(10.) *HUI-KUAN.*—The Ningpo and Fuhkien merchants have established a *hui-kuan* at Kiaochow. I have not been able to obtain a copy of the rules. The duties of these guilds seem to be limited to the collection of subscriptions from the Ningpo and Fuhkien junks trading with the port towards the maintenance of the temples of the guilds and the holding of annual festivals with theatrical performances.

There are no *hui-kuan* as yet at Tsingtao. The late Governor of Shantung, YUAN SHIH-K'AI (袁世凱), proposed the establishment of a Chamber of Commerce for the province. As it may be of interest to some of my readers interested in this question, I append a free translation of the provisional regulations propounded by this energetic official.

Provisional Regulations for the Chamber of Commerce for Shantung.

1.—The trade of the province is not even, and merchants have lost not a little money. The hong of each trade must all meet together, and each body appoints a delegate (manager), who can petition the Chamber of Commerce and consult with the hong which appointed him; so that what is now scattered can be brought together and mutual aid granted by unanimous vote of the councils. The council chambers of the different trades are to be in the same style as those of the salt and money-changers trades, where the managers can consult with the merchants of different hong. If trade guilds wish to consult on a matter of trade, the managers will appoint a date for a meeting.

2.—The delegates are to appoint two head delegates. In matters of great importance the heads of the committee will go to the Bureau of Commerce, and after consultation and decision, the matter will be laid before the Governor for approval.

3.—In public discussions the majority decides. If a resolution is not carried at a meeting, any member, being convinced that the matter is of great mercantile advantage, may petition the Bureau of Commerce, who will consult, settle, and then reply.

4.—Members of committee must meet twice a month, to ask for opinions on advantages and hindrances to trade. Where trade is hampered, the Bureau of Commerce may be petitioned to make regulations to remove the evil. The Bureau of Commerce can select a leader to cause things to prosper.

5.—Any hong which has no consulting-rooms may provisionally hold their meetings in the Bureau of Commerce.

6.—If a merchant belonging to the guild has a stock of merchandise which he is unable to dispose of, and needs capital for further purchases, he may request several of the committee members to issue a joint guarantee, and petition the Bureau of Commerce to provide a loan, on which the merchant will pay the interest agreed upon to the officials concerned. After the sale of the merchandise the loan is to be repaid, without prevarication and without delay.

7.—If the merchants desire to engage in a mercantile venture for which they have insufficient funds, the heads of committee are to consult together and to send a joint petition to the Bureau of Commerce, which, if it is convinced that the scheme proposed is clearly of advantage to the trade and will be attended with great profit, will issue a loan to support the merchants.

8.—In cases of litigation over money, property, etc., merchants are not allowed to go to the District Magistrate direct, in order to avoid trouble and delay, but must first approach the committee members, who will deliberate on the matter. If the committee members are unable to settle it, it must be brought before the Bureau of Commerce, which will then appoint a deputy, who will decide the case and administer justice. Trades having no member of committee may lay their case before the Bureau of Commerce direct. Cases which are not clear, and those where obstructions have arisen which cannot be overcome, or where the accused has run away or has hidden himself and cannot be produced, are to be sent to the District Magistrate to be settled by him. Copies of all cases, with their particular points, are to be made out monthly and forwarded to the Governor for his information.

9.—If local rowdies, shupan, or yamen runners extort money from merchants, or oppress them in other ways, the merchant may petition the Bureau of Commerce for redress. The Bureau of Commerce will then send a deputy to investigate the real facts of the case, and the culprit will then be taken by the runners of the Bureau to the District Magistrate for punishment. If the District Magistrate tries to screen the culprit, or is unduly lenient, the case must be reported to the Governor.

10.—Officials and underlings of the Bureau of Commerce must do their duty conscientiously, and not allow themselves to be tainted by ill practices of the District Magistrate yaméns. Degenerate officials who indulge in evil practices, and thereby cause trouble, must be reported by the committee and heads of committee to the president of the Bureau of Commerce, who will punish them with double severity.

11.—All the committee-men will be changed and new appointments made once a year. Good men will be re-elected, if they are again conjointly recommended by the hong.

12.—If during the term of a year's service a committee-man has shown himself to be honest, upright, clear-minded, and commanding the confidence of the merchants, he will, on the recommendation of the Bureau of Commerce, have an honour conferred on him by the Governor.

13.—If a shareholders company is formed for the purpose of trade, and if the capital has been borrowed for this purpose, and eventually this company becomes bankrupt, the person or persons aggrieved are to lodge a complaint against the company at court, where the circumstances will be investigated and a date fixed according to the regulations issued by the Board of Revenue and Punishments. The person or persons accused must pay back the money entrusted to them. If they have not paid when the time is up, they will be handed over to the District Magistrate for punishment, and pressure will be brought to bear on them for the repayment of the debt. One-tenth of the moneys thus recovered is to be paid into the funds of the Board of Commerce. If the accused escape and remain in hiding, their houses goods, etc., will be sealed up by the authorities, previous to handing them over to the creditors, and a warrant issued for the arrest and punishment of the accused.

14.—If fraudulent imitations of trade marks and trade circulars occur which are damaging the market reputation of the genuine articles, and the trade of the owner of these, either the latter is to investigate the circumstances and accuse the perpetrator of the fraud, or the committee is to investigate and make personal inquiries, when the accused will be severely punished.

15.—If merchants wish to establish a mercantile school according to Foreign ideas, they must report their intention to the Bureau of Commerce. The Governor will issue prizes to successful students and to subscribers of money towards the expenses of the school.

16.—Sons of merchants who have passed through the mercantile school may, if they wish to travel abroad to study commerce, ask the Governor to appoint a deputy to examine them. They will be provided with a *hu-chao* for the Chinese Ministers abroad, who will give them introductions to mercantile schools. Their names will be reported to the Foreign Office. If they return with a certificate, they will receive appointments as mercantile advisers, but previously they will be appointed examiners in the Bureau of Commerce.

17.—A trade journal is to be issued, which will publish the market prices and other information from other countries, for the assistance and education of merchants. Articles on mercantile affairs and political economy should also appear.

18.—The local officials, as well as the members of committee, are to collect statistics on quantities, prices, and qualities of goods—which are the most popular, the quantities imported and exported, etc., the expansion or retrogression of trade,—and report these matters to the Bureau of Commerce.

19.—Skilled artisans who have invented articles which can compete with Foreign goods may go to the Bureau of Commerce and report, or request a committee-man to go in their stead with the invention for inspection. The Governor will then report to the Foreign Office, which will issue a patent.

20.—Imitations of Foreign goods, such as cotton yarn, cloth, umbrellas, paper, needles, candles, wine, and soap, are to be reported to the Bureau of Commerce, which will then issue

regulations for the protection of these articles, providing that the financial standing of the inventor or imitator is good.

21.—If the establishment of companies makes the trade expand, and raises handicrafts, enlightens the people, and gives them advantages, the Bureau of Commerce will inquire what the capital is and what interest is derived on it, and report to the Governor, who will give a reward as an encouragement to others.

22.—Members of guilds must report their shop name, their capital, and names of employes to the Bureau of Commerce, which will issue a certificate renewable annually, thus securing participation in the advantages of these regulations.

23.—Later on, the administration of the police will be taken over by the Bureau of Commerce, for the protection of merchants, who will then be able to pursue their peaceful occupation without molestation. When the time arrives, the Bureau of Commerce will draw up a set of regulations for the approval of the Governor.

24.—If these regulations are incomplete and need adding to, the members of committee are to report to the Bureau of Commerce, which will report the matter to the Governor for his consideration.

(x.) CELEBRATED OFFICIALS.—The following table records the names of the Governors of Shantung during the decade under review:—

GOVERNORS OF SHANTUNG, 1892-1901.

NAME	PERIOD OF OFFICE	NATIVE PROVINCE	PREVIOUS APPOINTMENT	SUBSEQUENT APPOINTMENT	REMARKS
FU JUN..... 福潤	1891-94	Mongolia..	Provincial Treasurer of Shantung.	Governor of Anhwei.	
LI PING-HANG..... 李秉衡	1894-97	Fengtien..	Acting Governor of Kwangai.	Viceroy of Szechwan.	Cashiered before taking up his new appointment, at the instance of Germany. Was defeated at Yang-tsun by the Allied troops in 1900, whereupon he committed suicide at Tung-chou.
CHANG JU-MEI..... 張汝梅	1897-98	Honan.....		Placed on reserve list.	
YÜ HSIEN..... 龔賢	1898-99	(Manchu)..	Provincial Judge of Shantung.	Governor of Shansi.	Made his reputation as Prefect of Ts'ao-chou-fu in West Shantung, where he suppressed robbery with great vigour. Protector of the Boxer Society, and instigator of the outrages against missionaries in Shansi during 1900. Beheaded in Kansuh, by order of the Emperor, in 1901.
YÜAN SHIH-K'AI... 袁世凱	1899-1901	Honan.....	Vice-President of Board of Works, in command of right wing of the Wu-wei Army.	Viceroy of Chihli.	Minister Resident in Corea prior to China-Japan war. Distinguished himself as military organiser, and as Governor of Shantung during the troubles of 1900.
HU TING-KOU..... 胡廷幹	1901	"			Provincial Treasurer of Shantung; acted as Governor during period of mourning of YÜAN SHIH-K'AI and until arrival of his successor.
CHANG JEN-CHÜN... 張人駿	1901-	Chihli.....	Director General of the Grain Transport.		A Hanlin; formerly a Metropolitan Censor.

The following distinguished officials holding appointments in other parts of the Empire are natives of Shantung:—

Officials of Civil Rank.—HSU HUI-FENG (徐會禮), President of the Board of War, is a native of Chu-ch'êng-hsien (諸城縣), in the Ch'ing-chou prefecture; CHANG YING-LIN (張英麟), Vice-President of the Board of Civil Office, is a native of Li-ch'êng-hsien (歷城縣), Chi-nan-fu city; WU CH'UNG-HSI (吳重熹), Provincial Treasurer of Nanking, is a native of Hai-fêng-hsien (海豐縣), in the Wu-ting prefecture; TS'AO HUNG-HSUN (曹鴻勛), a *chuang-yuan* and Provincial Judge of Kweichow, and T'EN CHIH-MEI (田智枚), a Hanlin, Literary Chancellor of Yunnan, are natives of Wei-hsien (濰縣), in the Lai-chou prefecture; K'Ö SHAO-WÊN (柯劭忞), Literary Chancellor of Hunan, is a native of Kiaochow; SUN YÜ-WÊN (孫毓汶), who was President of the Board of Ceremonies and Minister of the Grand Council, and who died in 1899, was a native of Chi-ning-chou (濟甯州).

Official of Military Rank.—SUNG CH'ING (宋慶), Commander-in-Chief of Szechwan and Assistant to the Commissioner for Northern Trade (幫辦北洋通商大臣), is a native of P'êng-lai-hsien (蓬萊縣), in the T'êng-chou prefecture (he died at Tung-chou, near Peking, on the 11th February 1902).

(3.)

(2.) *FUTURE PROSPECTS OF THE PORT.*—The commercial future of Tsingtao is a question of possibilities; these possibilities are chiefly connected with the expansion of railway traffic and the development of the mines situated in different parts of the interior along the line of railway now being built. I have endeavoured to demonstrate, in this Report, that we are now in possession of facts which all point to a favourable issue of the expectations entertained by the German Government of the development of Tsingtao as the future trading centre of this province and possibly the adjoining provinces of Kiangsu, Honan, and Chihli.

These facts, to briefly recapitulate, are: a growing appreciation on the part of the Native population of the convenience and cheapness of railway transport, as proved by the daily growing passenger and goods traffic of the railway; the advantages of discharging goods from a steamer lying alongside a pier direct into railway trucks; the unlimited quantities of excellent coal waiting for a cheap egress to the sea; and the iron and other mineral deposits lying in the track of the railway.

The possibilities are: (1) an active participation in the coal trade on the China coast, owing to the convenient situation of the ice-free port of Tsingtao and the demand for a better article than Japan supplies; (2) the development of local industries, favoured by a cheap coal supply and the advantages of the Customs agreement; (3) the centralisation of the import and export trade of North and West and South Shantung, including the silk and straw braid districts; (4) the establishment of Tsingtao as the direct mail and passenger route for Peking and the north of China, by means of the railway connexion at Chi-nan-fu with Tientsin.

Should these possibilities become accomplished facts, which I have no doubt they will ere long, the future of Tsingtao as an important and flourishing commercial emporium is assured.

In conclusion, I desire to place on record my appreciation of the assistance rendered by the members of the staff, Foreign and Native, especially by Mr. Assistant REIS, in the preparation of this Report.

E. OHLMER,

Commissioner of Customs.

KIAOCHOW CUSTOMS,

TSINGTAO, 31st December 1901.

CHUNGKING.

DECENNIAL REPORT, 1892-1901.

(a.) Below is a chronological synopsis of the principal occurrences in the province of Szechwan during the decade under review:—

- 1893.—Abortive rising of Lolo tribes near Ning-ytian-fu.
Famine in Kweichow was reported, and boat-loads of refugees arriving at Chungking were cared for by the guilds.
- 1894.—Match factory and monopoly established at Chungking.
- 1895.—Anti-missionary riot at Ch'êng-tu (28th May); movement extended to other places in the province.
Fire at the Tai-ping Gate (June).
LU CHUAN-LIN took over seals as Szechwan Viceroy, *vice* LIU PING-CHANG transferred (July).
- 1896.—American Commission to settle claims for mission property damaged during Ch'êng-tu riot arrived at Chungking (January).
Japanese Commercial Mission arrived at Chungking.
Disturbances in Thibet.
Effort to start a local Cotton mill failed through want of support.
"Mission Lyonnaise" arrived at Chungking.
French Consulate established at Chungking (March).
Endeavour to introduce silver dollars manufactured by Wuchang Mint.
Japanese Consulate established at Chungking (May).
Great fire in Chungking city: 1,083 houses destroyed (August).
Landslip on river bank, causing the formation of Hsin-lung-t'an.
American Consulate established at Chungking (December).
Blackburn Mission arrived at Chungking.
- 1897.—Plant for Ch'êng-tu Mint arrived.
Imperial Post Office started overland courier service, Chungking-Ichang.
Famine in Eastern Szechwan.
KUNG SHOU appointed Acting Viceroy, *vice* LU CHUAN-LIN recalled.

- 1898.—Arrival of steam-launch *Leechuan* at Chungking.
 YU MAN-IZŪ anti-Foreign revolt broke out (July).
 WEN KUANG appointed Viceroy (temporarily), vice KUNG SHOU deceased (August).
 News received of murder of Mr. FLEMING, missionary in Kuei-yang.
 KUEI CHUN took over seals of Viceroy (December).
- 1899.—Arrival of H.B.M.'s gun-boats *Woodcock* and *Woodlark* (May).
 Arrival of s.s. *Pioneer* (June).
- 1900.—American Consul withdrawn from Chungking.
 Withdrawal of Foreign community and Customs staff from Chungking (June).
- 1901.—H.B.M.'s gun-boat *Woodcock* visited Sui-fu and Chia-ting (August).
 Negotiations for Japanese Settlement at Wang-chia-t'o completed (September).
 Arrival of the French gun-boat *Olry* (November).

The first steam-boat seen in these waters was the 7-ton launch *Leechuan*, owned by Mr. A. J. LITTLE of this port. She safely negotiated the passage up from Ichang during the low water season of 1898; but it was necessary to employ trackers to haul her over the different rapids en route. Too small to carry cargo, the *Leechuan* was used to some extent in towing locally the smaller chartered junks. The launch returned to Shanghai in 1899.

H.B.M.'s gun-boats *Woodcock* and *Woodlark* arrived at Chungking on the morning of the 7th May 1899, and tied up to the south bank of the river in close proximity to the Customs pontoon. They were received with salutes fired by the Chinese guard-boats; and the Natives lined the city walls overlooking the river, though without showing any signs of unusual excitement. On the journey up the *Woodlark* met with an accident at the Niu-k'ou rapid, near Pa-tung: a junk suddenly sheered out in the stream while proceeding over the rapid, and the gun-boat, to avoid a collision, had to turn off abruptly, and the rush of water striking her on the side, carried her at full steaming speed against the opposite bank. The vessel's bow was smashed in, and a delay of some 12 days resulted before her engineers could complete the necessary repairs. The *Woodlark*, unlike the *Woodcock*, steamed up the various rapids without the aid of trackers, hawsers, etc.; but a slightly higher river would have compelled her to resort to the same extraneous aid.

The first merchant steamer to reach Chungking, the *Pioneer*, arrived on the 20th June 1899; she took 73 steaming hours, or about 7 days in all, to make the ascent from Ichang—a distance of 400 miles. The *Pioneer* was a vessel of 331 tons register, built on the Clyde, and measuring 180 by 30 by 10 feet, with paddles 14 feet 6 inches in diameter and engines of 1,000 horse power. The greatest difficulty on the journey was experienced at the Yeh-t'an, and three and a half days were spent there before she could be got over. The vessel herself suffered no damage, and there were no cases of collision reported; but two small boats were upset by the "wash" of the steamer on her way up and two lives were lost. It is worthy of note that the prevailing opinion as to the profitable running of steamers on the most difficult stretch of the great Yangtze River (i.e., between Ichang and Wan-hsien) is decidedly in the negative.

It has been suggested that powerful steam-tugs between the chief rapids would have been the wisest course in introducing steam traffic, and stress has been laid on the recommendation of having recourse to capstans on shore at the worst places. The *Pioneer*, although she successfully made the trip up twice, was undoubtedly of too great a width to conveniently handle in some of the difficult passages, and the short life of the ill-fated *Suihsiang* did not allow of further knowledge being gained relative to the vexed question of what is really the best type of vessel for the work; everybody, therefore, has his own opinion on the subject. It may be confidently said, however, that the owners of the *Pioneer* were glad of the opportunity to avail themselves of the desire of the British Government to purchase the vessel; but the sale was a blow to the indefatigable pioneer and promoter of commercial enterprise in Szechwan, Mr. A. J. LITTLE, who had worked so hard and consistently to make the province independent of the slow and inadequate means of transport afforded by Native junks.

In 1893 a scheme was proposed for the establishment of a Cotton mill at Chungking, after the pattern of those working at Shanghai and Wuchang. It was not until 1895, however, that the plan really took shape, with a capital of £400,000; a plot of land was purchased for a site on which to erect the factory, and negotiations were begun for the purchase of the necessary machinery from Shanghai. The local merchants were not favourably disposed towards the scheme and showed no great alacrity in coming forward to take up the shares, their argument being that, although Cotton was grown in a certain area between Chungking and Ch'eng-tu, the amount produced was insignificant in comparison to the demand, and the production was not likely to increase so long as the cultivation of the poppy was such a profitable industry; most, if not all, of the Cotton for the mill, therefore, would have to be imported, and while Native junks continued to be the only means of transportation, there was no guarantee that the difficulties and dangers of navigation would not at any moment result in a failure in the supply of raw material; there was also good reason to suppose that it would be cheaper to import Yarn ready spun, in view of the fact that the cost of labour would not be appreciably less than at Wuchang, and it could not be taken for granted that the Yarn manufactured in Chungking would be better than that turned out by the Hupeh mills. The Viceroy was, however, bent on pushing forward the scheme, and in 1896 the officials opened a share office at this port. After much persuasion, 500 shares, at £100 each, were applied for; but there appeared little likelihood of any more investors coming forward. In spite of the want of interest in the undertaking displayed by the public, the number of shares offered was subsequently increased, in order to bring up the proposed capital of the concern to £1,000,000; and a contract was made with a Foreign firm for the supply of the machinery required. At this juncture a reply to the Viceroy's report was received from the Board of Revenue, objecting to official participation or contribution to the scheme: this despatch put a speedy end to the undertaking, and there seems but small chance of it being again revived, under present circumstances.

Importation of Matches has been prohibited to Chinese, in favour of the two Chungking Match factories, situated near the city, who hold a monopoly for 25 years for the sale and manufacture of Matches—Foreign importers being, of course, free to trade in the article. The

whole output of the factories has to be sold to a Match-makers guild at a fixed price. The guild appears to act as a sort of middleman between the factories and the merchants, deducting 10 per cent. of the amount due to the former for sales—a method of procedure extremely lucrative to the guild. The Match manufactured is a very common sulphur one, the chemicals used being imported, though the wood is of local production. The whole process of manufacture is done by hand, while the boxes are made and papered by women and children either at the factory or at home: 40 cash is the sum paid for every 100 boxes, and a woman can earn by box-making, on an average, some 60 cash per day—a no inconsiderable addition to the purse of an ordinary Chinese labouring family. The Matches are retailed in the shops and streets at 4 to 5 cash per box containing about 70 Matches. It is certainly difficult to imagine the Foreign-made article competing successfully with a price such as this; a superior quality would not appeal to the people, to whom the smell of burning sulphur is doubtlessly a pleasing variation from the usual all-pervading perfumes of a Chinese hut. Besides, a native of this part of the world is not a great consumer of Matches: he uses them to light the fire in the morning (when he cannot borrow a burning brand from a neighbour), and after that a paper spill or the kitchen fire supplies most of his needs. It would, therefore, seem probable that, if several Matches did not go out for every one that ignites satisfactorily, the demand for this elsewhere indispensable little article would be smaller than it is. The factories supply this as well as the adjoining provinces; and the total sale is said to exceed 77½ 250,000 annually.

A complete plant for a Mint capable of coining dollars and cash was brought up to Ch'eng-tu during the summer of 1897. It arrived under the charge of a Native deputy who had had instruction in coinage in America; but a series of accidents and shipwrecks during the voyage from Ichang to the provincial capital caused a great deal of damage through the corroding of the dies by rust. Two experts from America (where the plant was purchased), engaged to set up the machinery, passed through Chungking; and it was confidently supposed that Szechwan would soon have its coinage of dollars and smaller silver coins. Owing to the necessity, however, of having to obtain a new supply of dies, to replace those damaged, not a single coin, up to the present, has found its way down here, although the Mint is said to have been working satisfactorily for some time.

In 1899 the Standard Oil Company of New York built a godown, on the opposite side of the river, for the storage of Kerosene Oil in cases. A Foreigner was sent up to represent the company, but was withdrawn the following year, and the agency given to a local Chinese merchant.

In pursuance of the provisions of the Treaty between China and Japan, the Japanese Consul General at Shanghai arrived in Chungking in February 1896, for the purpose of obtaining a site for a Japanese Concession. The final negotiations, however, were not completed until September 1901, when a considerable area of ground was allotted for the Concession, on the right bank of the river, below the city, at Wang-chia-t'o.

Towards the latter part of June 1900 there was a great deal of uneasiness manifested by the Foreign and Native inhabitants of Chungking, due to the prevalent reports of the lamentable state of affairs in North China. There was, however, no expression of hostility

and no overt action against Foreigners; but the possibility of trouble becoming apparent, the British Consul telegraphed for a gun-boat, and decided, pending her arrival, to detain the s.s. *Pioneer*, which was at Chungking at the time. On the 27th the fears of the Europeans were further excited by the news that the Taotai was preparing to leave the city. The French Consul, on being apprised of this, sent in his card with a request that the Taotai should delay his departure until he received an important communication. The Consular body, in consultation, then decided to forward a joint note, desiring the Taotai, in view of the troubled local situation, to remain at his post, and at the same time they sent a telegram to the Viceroy asking him to order the Taotai not to leave. The Brigadier General, the Prefect, and the Magistrate were doing their utmost to keep matters peaceful, and were ready at any moment to suppress by force any movement which might become dangerous. The Magistrate surprised a meeting of some 80 members of a secret society which was being held in one of the city temples: the headman was seized and examined and the chief priest severely punished. It was not proved that this meeting had anything to do with a proposed anti-Foreign outbreak; but the manner of its dispersal had a salutary effect in lessening the uneasiness of the respectable class of Chinese, and inspired confidence in the power of the local officials to put a stop to disturbances. On the 2nd August the British Consul notified the Europeans of the instructions he had that day received from the Foreign Office, ordering him to quit Chungking at once, in the s.s. *Pioneer*, and to withdraw the British community, in spite of the fact that there were still some scores of missionaries in the interior who had received instructions to leave their posts and come into Chungking, but had not yet arrived. On the following day, accordingly, the Foreign community departed in the *Pioneer*, leaving behind two Britishers and an American (they having volunteered to remain, in order to assist the people from the interior who were arriving daily), all the Roman Catholic missionaries, and the Japanese and French Consuls—the latter had put his office archives on board, but elected, at the last moment, not to leave himself. Amongst those who went down to Ichang in the steamer were all the Foreign members of the Customs staff, arrangements having been communicated by the Commissioner to the Taotai relating to the carrying on of Customs work by the Native staff, one of whom was left in charge of the office. On the 26th the *Pioneer* returned to port from Ichang, bringing back the British Consul and the Customs staff, together with a company of blue-jackets detailed from H.B.M.S. *Pique* and a machine gun. In the meanwhile everything had remained quiet in Chungking and—although for some time afterwards the usual alarming-rumours were in circulation—the people were peaceful. The only result, therefore, of the exodus was, happily, only a certain loss of prestige. Subsequently, the s.s. *Pioneer* was taken over by the British Government, sent down to Shanghai to be armed and converted into a river gun-boat, and she now appears in the "Navy List" as H.B.M.S. *Kinska*.

With those Treaty ports where Foreign shipping is the only, or, at any rate, the principal, channel through which cargo is carried, the Customs Returns will show the prosperity or the reverse of the trade of a port; it is not so, however, at Chungking, where business coming under our cognizance forms only a portion—and a small one at that—of the whole. The Returns, therefore, require interpretation, as an increase or a decrease is perhaps but the transfer of a part of the trade carried in junks clearing at the Custom House to those clearing

at the Likin Offices, and *vice versa*. Foreign Imports are mostly carried by chartered junks, and the Customs tables may be taken as a fairly correct index of what is really brought into the port; the goods, having paid Import Duty at Shanghai, are conveyed to Ichang and thence to this port under Customs documents which would be of no avail to importers were the merchandise sent forward by Likin-paying boats. This is not the case with Imports of Native origin, however; and as for the Export trade, the Returns published give but a faint idea of the productive power of this rich and important province.

Apart from the Salt and Tea traffic, which are in the hands of monopolists, such articles as Opium, Wood Oil, Wax, Tobacco, Sugar, Coal, and Iron support a large fleet of junks engaged in their transport. Bulk commodities have always availed themselves of the more easy terms obtainable, in respect to value and tare allowance, through the Native offices: a large per-centage of these shipments are made by the leading Chinese firms (or representatives of so-called Foreign firms) interested in the Foreign trade of the port; and could reliable data of the transactions be procured, it is more than probable—leaving Salt out of the question altogether—that the value of the Export trade would be found largely to exceed the Import figures.

Large as the Export trade of Szechwan passing through Chungking undoubtedly is, there is every sign of its being capable of greater expansion; but a large capital is necessary, and what is of as great importance, a Settlement site, carefully chosen, where business could be conveniently concentrated, and where godowns, offices, and good landing-places could be built. Inside the city the insufficiency of room and heavy expenses necessarily incurred for transporting goods will always be a serious, if not a fatal, impediment to the growth of the trade of this port. In the preparation, too, of such articles as Wool, Bristles, Sugar, Feathers, etc., destined to compete in Foreign markets, where superiority of quality is so essential, Foreign supervision is almost a necessity to ensure continued improvement.

In 1896 a local British firm established a kind of factory for the cleaning and sorting of Pigs Bristles: the venture proved a great success, the Bristles finding a ready sale at good prices in London and New York. Now other competitors, both Chinese and Foreign, are beginning to compete in this industry.

An attempt was also made to clean Sheep's Wool, of which there is a large supply obtainable in Western Szechwan and Thibet. The Wool reaches Chungking in a wet and dirty condition; but when properly cleaned, it is said to be as good as any Wool procured elsewhere.

Another commodity which should have a future before it, if better known, is the fine Straw Braid made in the Hua-yang district, wherein Ch'eng-tu is situated. A British merchant informed me that the quality of the samples sent home was greatly appreciated, and it only wanted some slight alterations in the plaiting to place the article well up in the competing scale; samples were also sent to the last Paris Exhibition and found favour; and fine Straw Braid should increase in the quantity exported.

Further, a little more attention paid to the cultivation of the mulberry would certainly develop the capacity of the province for the production of Silk, and if the local methods of reeling were improved a better quality would result.

As regards the Import trade, the disappointing fact appears that the demand for Foreign textiles, at any rate, is not making any noteworthy advance in the west: they still continue to be a luxury reserved for the comparatively well-to-do—the difficulties and dangers of getting merchandise of all sorts up the river naturally enhances the price so as to place them beyond the means of the vast majority.

Roughly speaking, it is estimated by the Customs officers that one junk in 10 arrives with her cargo more or less damaged by water; total loss, however, is rare, as injured junks can generally be manœuvred into some quiet bay below the place where the damage was received, even though they reach the shore in a sinking condition. The cargo is then landed and dried, while the boat is, if possible, repaired. Besides the damage thus caused to cargo in transit, the different high and low water obstructions existing often prove a serious check on trade, merchants who have purchased goods in Shanghai having to wait at times for three to six months before receiving them in Chungking. All this, therefore, points to the pressing need of either steam navigation, or improving conditions at the worst rapids, or a line of railway connecting this port with Ichang; the last-mentioned undertaking, in the opinion of some engineers, does not present any insurmountable or even great difficulty in the way of construction. But whether the route be steamer or rail, the value and nature of the present trade, for which it is possible to show statistics and which is likely to be conveyed by steam, is not sufficient to offer any peculiar inducement to speculators to invest capital in the venture. It would appear, therefore, that the further exploitation of the province by capitalists should go hand in hand with the endeavour to improve the means of communication with the outside world. This exploitation will, presumably, be confined at first to mining, for which Szechwan gives every promise of being a rich field; but the conveyance up of most of the necessary machinery could only be undertaken, under present conditions, with great risk, while the produce of mines would be greatly handicapped by the difficulty of transport to the nearest market. Taking it for granted that it is only possible to work the province successfully if the means of transport are improved, it ought to be worth the while of those interested to take the matter in hand themselves, and, in calculating the capital required for their mining work, to include a substantial sum, either for the purpose of running the transport as a necessary adjunct to their principal project, or to subsidise a shipping company to provide steamers, if it be possible to do so. Until such concerted action is resorted to, it looks very much as if the matter will be left in abeyance—more especially after the disaster to the s.s. *Suihsiang* and the recognised inadaptability of the s.s. *Pioneer* for the work,—the position of affairs being that the companies with concessions are waiting for better communication to be established by those who, in their turn, are putting off action until the undertaking promises better paying results than at present. As matters stand, steamers could only look for profit on upward-bound cargo; and until the demand for Imports increases—either through greater prosperity of the masses, and consequent probable greater demand for luxuries, or by being able to place goods on the market at a cheaper price than now obtains,—there does not seem sufficient inducement offered for steamer enterprise. For the downward river voyage junks of medium carrying capacity are at present in most demand, and the freight charged by chartered craft is dependent somewhat on the influence of steamer competition on the lower river. A common understanding appears

to be arrived at as to the necessity of dividing risks as much as possible; so several of the local firms assist each other by combining to fill up a chartered vessel.

The value of the Thibetan trade with China may be valued, roughly, at 4½ million taels annually, and is chiefly in the hands of the merchants who hold the monopoly for the supply of Tea. The principal Tea-producing districts of Szechwan occupy the western portion of the province, and, no doubt owing to the expense of transport, it does not appear that the down-river provinces have entered into competition in supplying Tea to Thibet; but Yunnan has done so to some small extent. The monopolists are licensed by the Fantai of Szechwan; they apply annually for as many *yin*, or licenses, as they require. There are three kinds of these licenses, namely, *pien-yin* (邊引), to cover parcels across the frontier into Thibet; *t'u-yin* (土引), for parcels disposed of to the Lolos and other aboriginal tribes; and *fu-yin* (廢引), to cover supplies disposed of locally. Each *yin* is intended to cover 114 catties (including tare), and the rates of Duty (稅) and tax (費) are—

	DUTY.	TAX.
	<i>Ta</i> m.c.c.	<i>Ta</i> m.c.c.
<i>Pien-yin</i>	0.47.2	0.1.2.5
<i>T'u-yin</i>	0.3.6.1	0.1.2.5
<i>Fu-yin</i>	0.2.5.0	0.1.2.5

Raw Leaf intended for manufacture into Bricks for Thibet has to be conveyed to government factories, most of which are to be found at Ya-chou and Yung-chuan-hsien, where a factory charge is made to meet wear and tear of presses, moulds, etc.

At Ta-chien-lu a Likin is charged and a fee exacted for examining and passing parcels clearing the last barrier beyond that mart; in Thibet consignments are liable to an octroi at place of destination. The Chinese merchants accompany their Tea into Thibet, though the actual sales are controlled by the Lamas.

The estimates of travellers as to the probable requirements of Thibet for Tea vary: Mr. ROCKHILL was of the opinion that 10 to 13 million lb. enter Thibet *via* Ta-chien-lu; Père DESGODINS estimated 2,666,640 lb. by the same route; Mr. HOSIE valued the Tea trade at *Ta* 800,000, and Mr. LITTON at *Ta* 1,100,000. My inquiries here have shown the last figures to be near, if somewhat under, the mark; and it is said an equal amount passes through Sung-pan.

The chief articles exported from Western China into Thibet *via* Ta-chien-lu, besides Tea, are Cotton and Silk Goods, while China imports Musk, Wool, Gold, Skins, and Medicines. There are no statistics of the actual trade procurable, so that any calculations made can only be approximate; the figures for the annual value given below were obtained through inquiry in Chungking, and are given for what they are worth:—

	VALUE.
	<i>Ta</i>
Exports from China (chiefly Tea)	1,250,000
Imports from Thibet	1,000,000
TOTAL	<i>Ta</i> 2,250,000

Most of the taxes collected go to the Yen-ch'a Tao at Ch'êng-tu, the balance being paid to the Chün-liang Fu.

Of the Import trade, Musk is the most important as well as the most valuable article, and nearly all Thibetans coming from the interior bring some with them: the average price at Ta-chien-lu is 13 times its weight in silver. Wool comes next, with an estimated annual supply of 50,000 piculs: the price this year at Ta-chien-lu was *Ta* 8 per picul, and the transport to Chungking, including Likin, *Ta* 3.50 more. Gold comes down chiefly in the form of dust; the Thibetans, having the greatest objection to mining, only wash for it in the alluvial sand in the river-beds. As is shown elsewhere in this Report, the desire of the Viceroy LU to prospect in the country was the cause of the troubles in 1896.

The trade carried on with Thibet through Sung-pan may be said to be a counterpart of that *via* Ta-chien-lu, and is in the hands of a few large firms, chiefly agents of Ch'êng-tu and Chungking houses. The most important shops are those of the four *Ch'a-hao*, or government Tea monopolists, managed by Mahomedans from Hsi-an-fu—the trade being almost entirely conducted through middlemen of the Mahomedan faith, as the ordinary Chinese find it difficult to get on with the tribesmen. Tea (as in the case *via* Ta-chien-lu) is directed by the Ch'êng-tu Yen-ch'a Tao, and comes partly from the mountains north of Ch'êng-tu and partly from Kuan-hsien; it is of coarse quality, resembling bundles of twigs more than anything else. Each of these bundles has a label with the characters 引茶, *i.e.*, licensed Tea, attached to it. Thibetan Medicines are in great demand all over China: Rhubarb and Liquorice are the only kinds known to the Foreign market, the former, when prepared, being worth five times the price it can be bought for in Sung-pan. The Wool trade is comparatively a new one, and there are undoubted signs of the possibility of it assuming greater dimensions. The supply obtainable is always large, and far exceeds the demand for it in Chungking; but the Wool contains a large per-centage of dirt—nearly 20 per cent.—which has to be removed before this valuable staple can be put on the Foreign market. In addition to the Wool trade of Sung-pan, 25,000 sheep are said to go down to the Ch'êng-tu plain annually. The yearly value of the total Sung-pan trade is estimated as under:—

	VALUE.
	<i>Ta</i>
Exports from China	1,300,000
Imports from Thibet	900,000
TOTAL	<i>Ta</i> 2,200,000

Sung-pan is situated in the valley of the upper waters of the Min River, and is a very ancient Chinese settlement, dating back, according to the "Szechwan Chih," from the early Han dynasty (B.C. 206 to A.D. 25), when it was apparently a military post. The climate is said to be splendid, though the winters are severe, the thermometer going down to zero (F.). Excellent riding and sport may be had on the vast grass plains—the pasturage grounds of large flocks of sheep. The population is about 10,000, though the streets are always full of tribesmen from the neighbourhood who do not live within the city wall.

(b.) The total value of that portion of the Import and Export trade which has come under the cognizance of the Foreign Customs during the last 10 years shows a fairly steady improvement, as is demonstrated by the following statement:—

Gross Value of the Trade of the Port.

	<i>Hk.Tls.</i>		<i>Hk.Tls.</i>
1892	9,245,737	1897	17,971,807
1893	8,741,233	1898	17,428,200
1894	10,781,505	1899	25,792,677
1895	13,253,876	1900	24,453,058
1896	13,132,308	1901	24,269,050

The Yangtze is the great highway for most of the Imports into Eastern Szechwan, while the Native trade by routes from Yunnan and Kweichow has apparently remained in its former grooves. The parcel post service is, however, coming more and more into favour for the conveyance of valuable merchandise of small bulk, such as jadestone, books, clothing, expensive delicacies, etc.

The chief portion of the Chungking trade is in the hands of Chinese merchants, the only Foreign firms existing being the British "Chungking Trading Company," the French "Maison COFFINEX," and a branch of the German firm of ARNHOLD, KARBERG, & Co.; comparatively speaking, their business is but small and of little account. Besides these, the shipping companies of JARDINE, MATHESON, & Co. and BUTTERFIELD & SWIRE have Native agents who manage the chartered junk traffic in conjunction with their lower-river steamer lines.

COAST TRADE.—Original Shipments Coastwise.—To form an approximate idea of the Export trade of Szechwan in such staples as Yellow Silk, Musk, Nutgalls, and other produce, one should add up the entries appearing under "Exports to Chinese Ports" in the yearly Returns for the four ports Chungking, Ichang, Shasi, and Hankow, since a considerable proportion of these articles is carried through Likin-paying channels, and are, in the absence of Customs documents, entered as original Exports from the three last-named ports.

The accompanying figures give the value of Exports from Chungking for the past 10 years, exclusive of Opium, which is dealt with in a special paragraph in this Report:—

	<i>Hk.Tls.</i>		<i>Hk.Tls.</i>
1892	2,604,500	1897	4,325,713
1893	3,135,776	1898	3,693,510
1894	3,413,900	1899	4,610,822
1895	3,521,563	1900	3,398,008
1896	3,556,387	1901	4,837,178

The above statement shows that, when Opium is excepted, the development of our branch of the Export trade has only made a slow advance since 1892. This, however, is not to be wondered at, seeing the continued isolation of the province from the outer world and the difficulties of inland communication.

The export of Silk during the past decade is shown below:—

	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>
Silk, Raw, Yellow.....	4,840	4,560	2,989	3,522	3,271	4,566	3,149	5,976	4,144	5,531
" " Wild.....	399	398	744	639	568	931	499	530	212	695
" Cocoons.....	148	281	303	34	278	34	5
" " Wild.....	116	165	448	361	308	76	67	28	63	...
" Refuse.....	8,268	1,143	796	1,015	800	579	470	1,049	868	797
" Cocoons, Refuse.....	298	9,832	8,416	6,193	7,748	5,280	6,644	7,068	8,545	11,346

On the whole, the figures show that the export of Silk has remained pretty much the same during the last 10 years; an upward tendency both of quantity and quality is, however, noticeable throughout the period. The total value of the annual Silk crop of the province may be roughly estimated at 3½ million taels, of which rather less than half is exported.

It may be noted that in 1893 the then Superintendent of Trade sent down river for a supply of mulberry trees, with a view to the improvement of the local product. These trees were distributed among the farmers gratis, in proportion to the extent of their holdings; but owing to the careless way they were treated by those whose benefit was in question, the experiment is not likely to be renewed. The local method of reeling is very defective and the looms rough in construction; the threads are therefore knotty and the manufactured Silk shows a tendency to unravel.

Musk is a staple representing a good value in our list of principal Exports during the last 10 years; the following statement gives the amount annually exported:—

	QUANTITY.	VALUE.		QUANTITY.	VALUE.
	<i>Taels.</i>	<i>Hk.Tls.</i>		<i>Taels.</i>	<i>Hk.Tls.</i>
1892	46,328	419,848	1897	52,597	581,854
1893	52,766	478,192	1898	46,677	584,629
1894	51,265	488,299	1899	42,127	711,683
1895	49,716	540,662	1900	31,866	537,732
1896	53,490	538,243	1901	46,342	842,845

The quantity of Musk brought down from Thibet and Kansuh has of late years decreased, and the price, in consequence of a brisk demand, has got dearer. The parcels leaving Chungking are said to contain invariably 20 per cent. of other substances, and this admixture, which is said not to injure the scent, furnishes the margin for expenses and profit. The ingenuity practised by Native sellers in the adulteration of Musk makes the business such a risky one that dealings are only undertaken by experts. A great deal passes out to North China, and the Customs Returns show but a small quota of the annual supply brought into Szechwan. Musk arrives enclosed in the skin of the musk-deer's navel (it being a secretion in that part of the animal), a "pod" rarely containing more than one-third of an ounce; it is transported largely through the medium of postal hongas. The deer are found all over Eastern Thibet, but the largest herds are said to swarm on the plains near the Kokonor. The destruction

of these animals must be something enormous, and must lead to their extinction if the present slaughter continues.

Insect White Wax shows no great changes in the amount exported annually during the past decade. The Chia-ting prefecture is the chief producing centre of this article, though an inferior and low-priced variety is produced in insignificant quantity in the Pao-ning district. One of the features of the White Wax trade is the extraordinary fluctuation in price: it has latterly averaged Ta 48 per picul, but has been known to range during the last 10 years between Ta 30 and Ta 130 per picul in value. This difference in price is caused by the varying output at Chia-ting, in conjunction with the demand for the Wax at Canton, where large quantities are sent overland. Besides its uses in the druggist trade for the covering of pills, the Wax is largely employed for the outside coating of altar candles, for imparting a glaze on certain textile fabrics, and to some extent for furniture polish. The exportation through the Customs during the last 10 years was as follows:—

QUANTITY.		VALUE.		QUANTITY.		VALUE.	
<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Hk.Ta</i>		<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Hk.Ta</i>	
1892	8,390	318,824		1897	9,756	799,047	
1893	7,672	460,325		1898	9,979	848,243	
1894	10,865	991,995		1899	17,193	825,277	
1895	11,119	940,699		1900	9,296	483,388	
1896	9,595	799,298		1901	10,356	498,344	

Medicines, mostly for the Canton and Ningpo markets, are among the staple Exports of Chungking, and a steady upward tendency in value shows that that part of the Medicine trade which comes under our notice has prospered. Below is the export return for the 10 years under review:—

VALUE.		VALUE.	
<i>Hk.Ta</i>		<i>Hk.Ta</i>	
1892	352,368	1897	600,056
1893	451,919	1898	582,467
1894	458,156	1899	668,453
1895	505,091	1900	477,078
1896	507,900	1901	662,538

Rhubarb is chiefly destined for the Foreign market, where it is in good demand; the exportation for the past 10 years is as follows:—

QUANTITY.		VALUE.		QUANTITY.		VALUE.	
<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Hk.Ta</i>		<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Hk.Ta</i>	
1892	4,622	101,690		1897	6,673	108,098	
1893	6,284	94,262		1898	9,839	166,775	
1894	6,279	91,669		1899	8,090	155,324	
1895	5,192	80,470		1900	6,514	117,247	
1896	4,505	67,569		1901	5,760	132,469	

These figures show no great fluctuation in the export of Rhubarb; its value, however, increased satisfactorily, owing to the greater demand from abroad. Rhubarb is produced in Thibet and comes down through Sung-pan; and may be considered the most useful of the many Medicines on our list, from a Foreigner's point of view.

Nutgalls show the following figures for the 10 years 1892-1901, which do not call for any special comment:—

QUANTITY.		VALUE.		QUANTITY.		VALUE.	
<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Hk.Ta</i>		<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Hk.Ta</i>	
1892	8,159	73,428		1897	13,549	252,011	
1893	13,592	157,665		1898	7,806	128,799	
1894	10,972	134,951		1899	12,700	212,091	
1895	17,317	232,050		1900	9,381	160,408	
1896	4,745	66,428		1901	9,287	167,170	

Figs Bristles: the following statement gives the exportation through the Foreign Customs during the past 10 years, and there is every sign of an increase being maintained in the future:—

QUANTITY.		VALUE.		QUANTITY.		VALUE.	
<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Hk.Ta</i>		<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Hk.Ta</i>	
1892	3,806	40,619		1897	6,179	118,070	
1893	5,147	55,347		1898	5,174	100,586	
1894	6,416	84,132		1899	6,289	120,663	
1895	5,410	96,152		1900	9,264	158,213	
1896	5,752	129,099		1901	8,070	159,812	

Although the advance in exportation of the last two years was probably owing to the interference in the northern Bristle trade brought on by the Boxer troubles, still a great deal is undoubtedly due to the strides made in the preparation of a better quality article.

The Chungking Trading Company have now a factory, on the south bank of the river, where Bristles are cleaned and sorted for the Foreign market; they are tied up in bundles of various sizes before being packed into boxes for transport down river. The best Bristles are, approximately, 5 inches long, the process of trimming and bundling having reduced them to that length; and a thick or wiry condition, in conjunction with length and pure colour—preferably white,—enhances the price obtainable on the home markets. The process of picking and bundling requires some skill, and up to the present has chiefly been done by trained Natives from Shanghai or Tientsin, after the Bristles have had a thorough cleaning and drying—the latter done in heated furnaces.

Native firms have now started cleaning and sorting warehouses of their own, and export the Bristles, chiefly to Canton, either in an unclean or partly cleaned condition. In the workshops under Foreign supervision, 6 catties of Bristles properly picked

and bundled is considered a good day's work for a man, and *Tta* 8 *per mensem* is paid to workers who can accomplish this; the Native firms pay 6,000 to 7,000 cash a month to sorters for picking 7 catties *per diem*, the process here being considerably less careful and exact. From 40 to 50 per cent. of the Bristles exported from Chungking come from the Kweichow province, and these, with the Szechwan article, command the best price on the London market, where the demand is far above the supply. Besides the Native sorting establishments at this port, there are three more existing at Sui-fu which prepare Bristles for eventual shipment to Shanghai.

Sheep's Wool comes *via* Ta-chien-lu and Sung-pan to Chungking, and is chiefly destined for America, there to be used for the manufacture of carpets. The stock always on hand at the two first-named places is said to invariably exceed the requirements of Chungking merchants. The exportation for the last 10 years was as follows:—

QUANTITY.		VALUE.	QUANTITY.		VALUE.
<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Hk.Tta.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Hk.Tta.</i>
1892	10,478	62,870	1897	23,696	174,167
1893	10,768	69,989	1898	19,108	150,951
1894	19,031	134,743	1899	7,018	50,530
1895	15,057	99,377	1900	13,401	93,804
1896	21,977	145,046	1901	16,842	242,524

The trade in Wool is much interfered with, at times, by the recurring local disturbances amongst the tribes on the borders of Thibet (the marked decline shown for the year 1899 being caused by one of these outbreaks) and by the frequent "cornering" of the market by merchants. Charges of transport account for the difference in value of Wool from Ta-chien-lu and Sung-pan, and a partial or full advance for its cost is required by the western merchants before they will despatch consignments. The Wool, after it arrives at Chungking, is unpacked, sorted, and partially cleaned, and is then sent to Shanghai, where perfect cleaning and hydraulic pressure complete the preparation necessary before being shipped to a Foreign port. Thibetan Sheep's Wool ought to have a future before it: it is said to compare favourably with the northern article passing through Tientsin, and the present output could be increased to an unlimited extent, in view of the vast area suitable for pasturage of sheep in Eastern Thibet.

Lead, which first appears in our "Returns of Trade" for 1895, has been making tentative efforts to compete with its Foreign rival. The product of Government mines in the prefecture of Chao-tung, in Yunnan, Lead is transported on ponies a distance of 110 miles to Lao-ya-tan, whence it is carried by coolies another 160 miles to Sui-fu, on the Yangtze, over roads too rough even for the sure-footed little Kweichow horses. Should the exchange remain low, this trade promises a further development. Spelter comes also from mines in the same prefecture, and is supplied to the order of the Soochow Mint to be used in coining cash. Tin, being mined near the frontier, finds a cheaper route to Foreign markets *via* Mengtze and Tonkin. The

exportation of Lead and Spelter is shown by the following figures (Yunnan Tin appears only in 1899, with an export of 852 piculs):—

LEAD.		SPELTER.	LEAD.		SPELTER.
<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Piculs.</i>
1895	1,000	...	1899	8,502	7,473
1896	1,568	...	1900	5,144	1,569
1897	15,715	1,637	1901	8,124	784
1898	3,808	5,890			

Rapidly growing articles of export are Goat Skins, which have appeared in our Returns since 1894, and Cow and Buffalo Hides, which have only appeared since 1896.

Duck Feathers: there is room for expansion in this trade. The supply is almost unlimited; and although the Feathers offered by the farmers are very dirty, yet, when carefully cleaned by hand or machinery, they turn out first-class quality and fetch good prices in the Foreign markets. The Szechwan Duck Feathers are said to excel those of other provinces in the quantity and colour of the downy parts.

Of the three varieties of Hemp produced in this province, the kind known as *Ching-ma* (青麻) is the only one which finds a market in Europe; the *Chu-ma* (苧麻) variety is principally used in the manufacture of Grasscloth, a fabric always exported by Likin junka. The figures given below represent the amount of Hemp exported during the past 10 years:—

QUANTITY.		VALUE.	QUANTITY.		VALUE.
<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Hk.Tta.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>		<i>Hk.Tta.</i>
1892	9,365	39,333	1897	13,549	97,552
1893	9,775	58,648	1898	9,967	70,765
1894	8,574	53,501	1899	9,824	66,800
1895	9,760	68,806	1900	3,038	19,444
1896	12,946	90,620	1901	12,594	74,303

The export of Brown Sugar shows but very unsatisfactory figures, and the trade, of which only a small portion comes under our notice, will remain in its present lethargic state until improvement in its preparation will enable the Szechwan product to reach something approaching the standard of the coast Sugar mill produce, which at present easily ousts the inferior Sugar turned out in this province.

Kansuh Tobacco is invariably smoked in water pipes by the better classes, and it fetches 300 cash a catty in Chungking; it is exported down river to Shanghai made up in cakes of brick-red colour, and is said to contain arsenic. The chief producing centre is Ching-chou (荊州).

Safflower, once a thriving Export of this province, is grown less and less every year, on account of the growing demand for Aniline Dyes.

Coastwise Arrivals.—The value of Imports, both Native and Foreign, into Chungking during the period 1892-1901 was as follows:—

	Hk.Tls		Hk.Tls
1892	6,224,620	1897	11,220,549
1893	5,073,998	1898	11,540,439
1894	5,783,817	1899	16,959,902
1895	6,857,133	1900	17,460,021
1896	7,909,079	1901	15,154,074

In addition, goods of an average yearly value of Hk.Tls 478,860 reached Szechwan—chiefly Chungking—during the same period under Transit Pass from Hankow (Kerosene Oil is largely imported in this way, owing to the refusal of the Hankow-Iohang steamers to carry it).

On the opening of Chungking as a Treaty port, great hopes of a large increase in business were entertained by those interested in the sale of Foreign goods; but, although there has been a decidedly upward tendency in the quantity imported, the result realised has certainly not come up to anticipation. The following statement gives the gross values, for each year of the decade under review, of actual Foreign Imports passed by this Custom House:—

	Hk.Tls		Hk.Tls
1892	5,825,474	1897	8,444,081
1893	4,574,298	1898	7,967,012
1894	5,114,013	1899	13,075,176
1895	5,618,317	1900	12,918,073
1896	6,929,393	1901	12,598,741

Taking into consideration the great difficulty of transport, and the consequent heavy charges for freight and damage *en route*, the progress of this trade is fairly satisfactory; but whether under present conditions it gives promise of expansion is a question which, I fear, will be answered in the negative.

Foreign Cotton Goods have, one might say, remained stationary, as will be seen by the following table for the past 10 years; a glance through these figures will prove that little development has taken place, and the best possible view of the trade is the fact that it has not declined:—

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Shirtings, Grey, Plain	Pieces. 520,983	Pieces. 433,732	Pieces. 373,050	Pieces. 511,455	Pieces. 374,542	Pieces. 459,394	Pieces. 399,346	Pieces. 525,012	Pieces. 498,060	Pieces. 322,519
White	84,432	65,987	42,409	55,918	37,009	36,964	43,331	58,874	40,545	52,109
White Irishes	8,045	2,290	2,085	5,115	6,105	10,651	12,721	8,714	3,497	18,987
Drills, American	10,084	10,030	4,860	14,510	18,968	24,550	19,593	49,094	44,105	39,159
Sheetings, English	5,047	3,702	1,604	1,573	3,103	2,201	3,120	4,279	1,776	2,115
Chintzes and Furnitures	37,775	29,915	19,146	26,663	33,632	16,011	6,800	14,737	13,515	12,163
Cotton Prints, Plain	28,956	14,677	20,590	17,580	15,052	10,005	8,730	14,919	17,786	11,348
Turkey Red Cottons	24,150	22,961	17,760	33,761	33,580	24,973	36,324	59,451	93,717	64,735
Cotton Lastings, Plain and Figured	15,637	16,498	36,496	44,112	58,095	43,292	42,038	79,414	91,900	105,340
Italiana, " "										
TOTAL	735,109	599,792	518,000	710,687	593,942	643,794	579,503	834,922	817,293	643,366

English Piece Goods are chiefly used by a few dwellers in the big cities of the province, and are bought almost exclusively by the middle classes, to whom an advance in price is not a serious obstacle, while the vast country population continue to wear the Native-woven cloth, on account of its superior warmth and durability. Fashion and taste in cotton clothing varies in different parts of Western China, but the farmers and labouring classes may be said to wear scarcely anything but Hupeh cloth, or cloth woven from Szechwan or Hupeh raw cotton. These stuffs are of coarse thread and are loose in texture, and the cloth made of them will stand hard wear for at least two years. In the larger towns and along the great waterways cloth made partly or wholly of Foreign yarns successfully competes with the Native article.

The import of Cotton Yarn displays a good increase, as is shown by the table given below:—

IMPORT OF COTTON YARN AND RAW COTTON, 1892-1901.

YEAR.	COTTON YARN.					RAW COTTON.
	English.	Indian.	Japanese.	Chinese.	TOTAL.	
	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.
1892.....	618	128,227	...	300	129,145	4,148
1893.....	129	77,573	...	423	78,125	3,431
1894.....	474	124,599	45	2,139	127,257	8,771
1895.....	685	114,565	3	4,053	119,306	32,243
1896.....	34	166,636	6	3,957	170,633	13,088
1897.....	177	188,390	8,785	33,930	231,282	65,089
1898.....	324	160,426	9,284	52,200	222,234	72,589
1899.....	538	291,841	32,813	106,975	432,167	37,594
1900.....	91	250,347	35,464	136,516	422,418	7,020
1901.....	...	240,981	2,486	52,952	296,419	2,112

Cotton Yarn is the chief Import into Szechwan, and averages, for the last six years, six-tenths to seven-tenths of the total value of the Import trade. The figures will show that, although Chinese Yarn has made big strides, the Indian article still holds its own. As a rule, country weavers mix the two kinds, and local dealers say that were the best-cotton only used in Chinese-milled Yarn, this would, by the cheapness in price, before long entirely monopolise the market. Cloth made with Indian Yarn sells for 16 to 18 cash per foot; Nankeens from Shasi, for 25 cash per foot; and Cloth made from imported Raw Cotton, for 26 cash per foot. Raw Cotton is one of the greatest wants of this otherwise productive province. While the possibility of its growth locally is shown by its production in small quantities north-west of Chungking, signs of any extension of the present area of cultivation are wanting, and the people continue to import their Cotton from the central provinces. Kweichow and Yunnan, though fairly thickly populated, are cottonless; but the vast majority of the inhabitants of both provinces—as well as those of Szechwan—are clad all the year round in cotton, raw or manufactured.

There is a decrease in the importation of Woollen Goods during the last decade, notably in English Camlets, Lastings, and Russian Cloth, the reason being the high price of these articles, which are used only by the shopkeeping and wealthier classes in towns. The importation of the different Woollens for the period 1892-1901 was as follows:—

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>
Camlets, English.....	4,940	3,930	1,070	2,315	2,326	2,212	1,090	2,520	2,176	366
Lastings.....	21,925	15,711	7,459	9,881	3,231	3,630	4,928	2,730	2,391	2,835
Long Ells.....	8,100	7,695	6,514	9,945	6,600	5,200	5,144	8,412	7,864	7,630
Spanish Stripes.....	2,778	2,714	2,990	2,762	3,600	3,220	2,463	3,485	1,776	4,171
Cloth, Russian.....	3,121	2,201	770	1,296	1,735	1,073	646	550	790	524
Italian Cloth, Plain and Figured..	8,541	5,812	9,507	8,884	10,096	12,602	8,986	11,543	5,002	10,655

Near the provincial capital, silk garments wadded with cotton, which are very cheap, compete against Woollens for winter use.

The import of Foreign Metals is only small: the Metals locally produced seem to be of sufficiently good quality to satisfy the simple needs of the people. Iron Wire, used in the manufacture of needles, nails, etc., figures with about 1,000 piculs yearly; while Quicksilver, formerly imported for medicinal purposes, the silvering of looking-glasses, and the manufacture of vermilion, has totally disappeared from the Customs "Returns of Trade" for this port.

Kerosene Oil is here consumed in comparatively small quantities—fear of conflagration, the expense, and the fact that hardly a tin reaches Chungking which is not short measure or diluted with water account for this. The bulk of the quantity of Kerosene imported does not figure in the Chungking Returns, being brought into Szechwan under Transit Pass from Hankow.

The rest of the principal Imports to Chungking—as, for instance, Aniline Dyes, Medicines, Seaweed and Agar-agar, Cuttle-fish, and Opium Lamps—have remained very steady during the decade under review, and no striking changes in trade are to be recorded.

Of Native Imports, the various sea delicacies employed in the Chinese cuisine take a prominent place; Silk Piece Goods, too, arrive in increasing quantities from Shanghai; while Raw Cotton was said to have, at times, formed the most profitable business of the period. Fans, for which Chungking is a great emporium, and the numerous minor articles which fill the shops of the city, only come partially under our notice, and continue to arrive from down river by Likin-paying boats.

TRANSIT.—*Inwards*.—Shortly after Chungking became an open port, Transit Passes were applied for by merchants and issued by the Customs. The most determined opposition was offered by the Likin barriers, and things were made so uncomfortable for the Chinese merchants concerned that no further Passes were applied for. This state of affairs continued for nearly

five years, until the spring of 1896, when the demands from the Central Government for funds to assist in paying the Japanese war indemnity caused such an increase in all Likin taxes that the merchants decided to try their fortune again with the Transit Pass. These were issued, and as in 1891, ignored. Protracted negotiations with the officials ensued, and, in the end, an agreement was drawn up in which the Transit Pass system was assured for the future. It is chiefly Indian and Chinese Cotton Yarn, and Kerosene Oil, for which Transit Passes are taken out; the destinations of the greater proportion of Transit goods are the Chia-ting and Tung-chuan prefectures. The value of the Inward Transit trade of this port since 1896 is set forth below:—

	<i>Hk.Tta</i>	<i>Hk.Tta</i>
1896	1,011,874	1899 1,663,674
1897	810,117	1900 2,949,147
1898	857,603	1901 2,601,473

Outwards.—This trade is not likely to grow to any importance, as the aggregate Likin on articles leaving this port (with the exception, perhaps, of Musk and Wool) is very light; the Passes issued, therefore, have been but few. Sheep's Wool, which might, perhaps, arrive in greater quantities under Transit Pass, has kept in the old channels, for the following reason: from Sung-pan to Kuan-hsien, where water transport begins, Wool is carried by mules or coolies, and as this means of conveyance is limited, only 15 to 30 piculs, on an average, can be carried to the latter place at one time; each caravan must be covered by the necessary Pass, costing about *Hk.Tta* 1.70 in Consular fees, which results in a tax of from 5 to 11 candareens, in addition to the Transit Dues of *Hk.Tta* 0.175.

(c.) A comparative table of Duties collected, for the years 1892 to 1901, is here given:—

YEAR.	IMPORT (exclusive of Opium).	EXPORT (exclusive of Opium).	COAST TRADE (exclusive of Opium).	OPIMUM (Import, Ex- port, and Coast Trade).	TONNAGE.	TRANSIT.	OPIMUM LIKIN.	TOTAL.
	<i>Hk.Tta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk.Tta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk.Tta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk.Tta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk.Tta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk.Tta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk.Tta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk.Tta m.c.c.</i>
1892.....	1.1.6.0	103,856.1.5.0	45,129.8.8.9	51,782.8.0.0	160.0.0.0	200,929.9.9.9
1893.....	2.6.8.0	116,885.8.5.0	12,056.6.2.6	50,073.6.6.3	276.6.0.0	181,295.4.1.9
1894.....	0.6.4.3	112,682.0.2.5	11,005.2.9.3	120,477.7.2.6	248.0.0.0	244,413.6.8.7
1895.....	14.6.9.1	115,486.0.4.6	5,603.3.6.8	235,576.9.0.0	356,681.0.0.5
1896.....	0.2.0.0	118,214.2.1.0	20,458.1.8.5	161,246.5.0.0	...	14,926.4.6.0	...	314,845.5.5.5
1897.....	2.7.5.4	139,403.3.3.4	22,830.4.4.5	213,732.6.0.0	...	7,761.4.9.2	...	383,730.6.2.5
1898.....	45.2.0.0	119,787.6.6.0	10,138.9.4.2	151,069.8.5.0	1.4.0.0	6,986.2.6.7	...	288,029.3.1.9
1899.....	4,436.0.4.6	159,059.6.9.4	5,405.8.0.8	313,343.1.5.0	2.1.0.0	13,093.1.6.3	...	495,339.9.6.1*
1900.....	9,810.9.6.3	119,650.7.4.1	12,707.4.8.9	218,372.3.5.1	...	16,358.2.6.8	...	376,899.8.1.2
1901.....	8,986.2.8.6	161,559.0.5.8	13,974.0.2.8	316,599.4.9.5	...	13,830.8.3.9	...	514,949.7.0.6

* Gross receipts, the deficit in the Yangtze Coast Trade Deposit Account, amounting to *Hk.Tta* 31,234.5.0.1, not having been deducted.

(d.) Fu-chou, a city situated on the Yangtze some 120 miles east of Chungking, is the chief amongst the provincial markets for Native Opium. It is credited with having an annual

average surplus of 10,000 piculs of Opium after the demands of local consumers have been fully provided for. The head office for the provincial collection of Duty on Opium was transferred from Wan-hsien to Fu-chou, because of the more convenient and central position of the latter place. Almost all the drug exported in chartered junks is bought at this great mart, and on arrival at Chungking is transhipped into waiting boats—on account of the Likin taxes imposed on Opium at the city gates, none intended for export is stored within the walls, and there do not appear to be any wholesale dealers here. The drug is only produced in small quantities in the immediate neighbourhood of this city, and all grown there is consumed locally.

At the beginning of the past decade business was interfered with somewhat by the uncertainty, which then existed, as to whether the proposals for admitting Native Opium shipped through the Foreign Customs to bonding privileges would be entertained by the Higher Authorities or not. It was doubted also whether, if—as suggested by the Hukwang Viceroy—the whole of the Coast Trade or arrival Duty was collected at Ichang, the officials at the ultimate places of destination would not be averse to, and bring strong pressure to bear against, free trade in an article from which the provincial treasury reaped no benefit whatever. The final arrangement was that Opium passing through the Foreign Customs should pay an Export Duty at Chungking and an arrival Duty at Ichang, after which it should be admitted all over the Empire without any further payment. The drug passing through the country under Likin could be carried *via* any province to place of destination with liability to a Transit tax at each province traversed and an Import tax on arrival. It was further decided that the bonding privilege could not be accorded. In the year 1897 there were proposals, emanating from the Tsungli Yamén, to make all Opium produced pay a Likin of $\text{T}a$ 60 per picul—payment of which would free the drug all over the Empire. A great increase in Revenue would undoubtedly have resulted by the adoption of this scheme (in this province, excepting in the larger towns, scarcely any Duty is collected on the large quantity of Opium consumed locally at place of production); but the Viceroys rejected it as impracticable and unadvisable. They opined, firstly, that smuggling would be so great that the heavy Duty could not be well collected; secondly, that it would tend to increase the consumption of the Indian drug at the expense of the Native Opium. The first of these objections was probably well founded—but a remedy could surely have been found by changes and reform in the system of collection; the second, however, was certainly groundless, for there can be little doubt that West China, at any rate, could well bear the tax, and even a higher one. It may be surmised that the chief opposition to the scheme came from the authorities of the non-producing provinces, as it meant the cutting off of their Import and Transit Likin.

The strides made in late years in Opium production could almost have been foretold when the news reached China of the change in the money standard of India; and as it has since turned out, the farmers of Szechwan were not slow to take advantage of the situation. The quotations for the Indian drug grew higher and higher, while the quality of the western Native product improved year by year. It was only natural that smokers in the eastern provinces should avail themselves of the opportunity to obtain a drug—the cheapness of

which suited their pockets and the flavour their tastes—when once accustomed to it. Large quantities of Opium are known to be annually sent from this province to the great trading centres of Hêng-chou, in Hunan, and Kan-chou, in Kiangai, whence the seacoast provinces of Fuhkien and Kwangtung are largely supplied. The routes, however, are fraught with many difficulties and dangers, not to mention the expenses of transport; and were it not for the great reduction made in the prescribed Duties by the government of each province the Opium passes through, we should undoubtedly see the river and sea route more freely made use of.

Of the large quantity of Opium produced in this province (which I estimate at 150,000 piculs per annum), some 55 per cent. passes the border under Likin for consumption in other provinces, about 12 per cent. goes through this Custom House, while 33 per cent. is consumed locally. The abundance and cheapness of the drug has no doubt a bad effect on the local population, of which every second male is said to be a smoker, and even among women the per-centage who smoke is very large. Opium divans in Chungking are frequented only by the coolie class, the more respectable portion of the populace enjoying their pipes at home. These divans (or, to be more accurate, dens)—to the number of 3,000 in this city alone which are to shut at 10 P.M. by law—retail Szechwan Opium, ready boiled, at about 300 to 400 cash a tael; the Yunnan drug fetches 400 to 550 cash, according to quality. The locally-consumed Opium is generally pure, though that for export may contain an admixture of glue, sesamum seed, and other substances. The mountainous province of Kweichow is stated by travellers to be greatly given over to poppy (it exports to Hunan and South China), while the whole of the Yunnan province is more or less devoted to the cultivation of the plant; it is, however, only the Opium from the highlands of Northern Yunnan which comes out to the Yangtze at Sui-fu. The Yunnan drug is superior to that of Szechwan, and commands a price some 20 per cent. higher in the Chungking market.

The taxes levied on Szechwan Opium are—

- 1°. A local inland Likin of $\text{T}a$ 4.80 (to be increased later, it is rumoured, 10 per cent.), payment of which enables the merchant to take the Opium anywhere in the province.
- 2°. An Export Duty to the Native Likin Office of $\text{T}a$ 20 per picul whether the export from the province is by land or by water, owing, however, to the practice of the Likin Offices reckoning 100 catties as only 62½ when assessing Duty, the tax is really less (for the greater quantity of Opium destined for Hupeh, Hunan, and Kwangtung pays this tax; for a short period during the summer of 1897 the weight privilege was withdrawn by the Likin officials, a picul being reckoned as a picul—this action led to a larger export through the Foreign Customs, with a corresponding decrease in Likin receipts, so the old system of reckoning weight was restored); or
- 3°. An Export Duty to the Foreign Customs: this amounts to $\text{T}a$ 20 per picul, paid on exportation by chartered junk; another charge of $\text{T}a$ 52 per picul is made on arrival of the Opium at Ichang, after which it may be shipped to any open port free from further Duty.

The following table gives the quantity of Native Opium exported for the past 10 years through this office:—

	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>
Szechwan Opium....	2,494	2,513	5,280	10,791	7,025	9,392	6,075	12,827	7,170	12,266
Yunnan "	92	85	739	988	1,038	1,294	1,455	2,832	4,827	3,761
TOTAL.....	2,586	2,598	6,019	11,779	8,063	10,686	7,530	15,659	11,997	16,027

(e.) With an entire absence of Foreign banks or agencies for direct remittances to or from Foreign countries, sterling rates do not figure in exchange quotations, public and banking interests being mainly absorbed in the fluctuation of the two local currencies, i.e., Chungking taels—or *Yü-p'ing* (渝平)—and copper cash. *Hk.Ta* 100 always exchange for *Chungking Ta* 107.29, and have remained steadfast at their original rate instituted at the time of the opening of the port in 1891. The neighbouring provinces, Kweichow and Yunnan, contribute little to the influx of silver gravitating to Chungking overland or by water, this port being the most important mart and distributing centre of this province. The large sums which arrive from Shanghai, through the medium of bank drafts, would be further increased were it not for the method existing of counterbalancing accounts with that and other distant places by an interchange of merchandise, a system which has received some impetus by the action of Native bankers, who, when hampered with a plethora of silver, charge as much as 12 per cent. for the issue of drafts. The money from Shanghai is remitted annually to Chungking in the form of bills of exchange, principally in the early summer, when the opium market is at its briskest; silver sent into the interior to purchase the drug gradually finds its way back here to be invested in Foreign goods.

Although the tael (Chinese ounce) is the recognised standard in monetary transactions, the following comparative table will show the varying rates of weight—that have been long adopted—according to locality and commodity (the Chungking tael is taken at par value):—

	<i>Ta m.c.</i>		<i>Ta m.c.</i>
Yü <i>p'ing</i> (渝平).....	100.0.0	Yunnan <i>p'ing</i> (雲南平).....	100.3.4
Kweichow " (貴州平).....	101.2.1	Shun-ch'ing " (順慶平).....	100.2.7
Ch'eng-tu " (成都平).....	100.2.0	K'uei-fu " (夔府平).....	98.7.3
Chia-ting " (嘉定平).....	100.9.8	T'ü-liu-ching " (自流井平).....	99.6.3
Hsü-fu " (叙府平).....	101.2.0	Sundry merchandise " (雜貨平).....	100.2.0
Lu-chou " (瀘州平).....	100.6.0	Piece goods " (廣貨疋頭平).....	100.1.0
Hsi-ch'ung " (西充平).....	100.9.3	Cotton yarn " (棉紗平).....	99.9.2
Shasi " (沙市平).....	100.6.0	Satin " (緞子平).....	99.9.2
Mien-chou " (綿州平).....	100.6.8	Quicksilver " (水銀平).....	99.9.2
Salt " (鹽平).....	99.8.5	Raw cotton " (棉花平).....	101.4.3

Regarding the purity of silver ("touch"), it is determined by the Kung Ku (公估), or Assay Office, where a fee of 4 cash per shoe of *Ta* 10 is charged, and a certificate (accepted with public confidence as a true test) is issued, the quality of the silver being specified under three heads, viz.:—

1°. *Hsin-p'iao* (新票), pure silver.

2°. *Lao-p'iao* (老票), old silver.

3°. *Tao-tsao* (套槽), inferior silver.

If a payment is made in *tao-tsao*, 3 or 4 taels have to be added to every 100, and a few mace only when paying in *lao-p'iao*.

The daily rate of exchange between silver and copper cash is influenced primarily by the quantity of silver in the local market, and is determined by the principals of the leading local cash banks, who, having regard for the probable requirements of their clients, meet in the early hours of the morning and fix upon a rate, which is afterwards freely circulated amongst the prominent cash dealers and shops.

The decennial period under notice displays a remarkable fall in the value of silver in relation to copper cash, felt keenly by the middle classes and wage-earners, who now find their 10-tael *ting* (錠) produces only 12,000 cash, against 16,000 cash obtained in 1892. As an illustration of the loss in purchasing power occasioned by this great change, the staple necessity, rice, had in 1892 a retail value of 16 cash a catty, while the same quantity at the end of 1901 cost 30 cash; so that a 10-tael shoe in 1892 would purchase 10 piculs of rice, whereas now it only buys 4 piculs.

A weighty reason for the increased value—and scarcity—of China's primitive copper coin is the fact of the cessation of its coinage having been brought about by the loss involved in manufacture. A string of 1,000 cash weighs 6 to 7 catties; and some seven years ago the Ch'eng-tu Mint turned out a considerable quantity of KUANG HSÜ cash—these contained 25 per cent. of lead and 25 per cent. of sand, the remainder being copper costing *Ta* 0.32 a catty. If we take, therefore, the average weight of 1,000 cash as 6½ catties, we have a cost for their manufacture, in copper alone, of *Ta* 1.04. Thus, it is evident that the Government do not coin good cash except at a heavy loss.

The table which follows gives, for the years enumerated, the rate per 1,000 cash exchanging to taels, Chungking and Haikwan; for the latter a column is devoted to show its value in copper cash:—

YEAR.	RATE FOR 1,000 CASH.		VALUE OF THE HAIKWAN TAEI IN COPPER CASH.
	<i>Chungking Ta m.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.</i>	
1892.....	0.6.3.0	0.5.8.7	<i>Hk. Ta</i> 1 = 1,704
1893.....	0.6.3.5	0.5.9.2	" = 1,690
1894.....	0.6.6.5	0.6.2.0	" = 1,613
1895.....	0.7.1.0	0.6.6.2	" = 1,510
1896.....	0.8.0.0	0.7.4.5	" = 1,342
1897.....	0.8.5.0	0.7.9.2	" = 1,263
1898.....	0.8.0.0	0.7.4.5	" = 1,342
1899.....	0.8.1.0	0.7.5.5	" = 1,326
1900.....	0.8.1.5	0.7.6.0	" = 1,316
1901.....	0.8.4.0	0.7.8.3	" = 1,277

Silver in 1892—when the maximum number of cash during the decade could be bought for a tael—was unusually cheap, on account of excellent crops of opium, rice, and other cereals; the heavy premium demanded by bankers for drafts induced merchants, despite the risk, to forward remittances by junk to Ichang, which resulted in an exportation of silver by chartered junks alone amounting to *Hk.Ta* 483,515, while the import was *nil*. In contrast to the preceding year, 1893 shows a fall in the cash value of the Haikwan tael, caused by violent gales and excessive rain destroying or impeding the development of the valued poppy; a depressed trade in agricultural and other produce also affected the state of the silver market. The years 1894 and 1895 give the Haikwan tael at 1,613 and 1,510 cash respectively—a continued decline in its value. To the failure of the rice crop in 1896 is attributed a further fall of the Haikwan tael to 1,342 cash, and the local scarcity of silver induced the importation of silver dollars from Hupeh, but with ill success. In 1897 came the lowest exchange reached; negotiations by drafts were interrupted by the refusal of local bankers to issue acceptances on their Shanghai agencies, in consequence of the scarcity of silver at that port, so pressing obligations were met by the shipment of silver to the value of *Hk.Ta* 153,300. 1898 records the only rise in 10 years of the value of the Haikwan tael in copper cash, which then rose to 1,342 cash: although an improved harvest made its influence felt, much may be ascribed to the YÜ MAN-TZÜ disturbances, when provincials, fearing a spread of the rising, sought to rid themselves of the cumbersome copper and replace it by the more portable and more easily hoarded silver. Rice, always a powerful factor in monetary fluctuation, again played its part in 1899, when a drought, besides causing that staple to advance in cost from 900 to 1,200 cash per 40 catties, was also responsible for a drop in the cash value of the Haikwan tael to 1,326 cash. Although there was a plentiful supply of silver on the market, this fall was followed by a further decline, in 1900, to 1,316 cash. The year 1901, particularly the latter part, found the Native banks overburdened with silver and charging exorbitant rates for the issue of drafts; merchants, therefore, again found it cheaper to resort to shipping their sycee to Ichang at a freight charge of *Hk.Ta* 1 per mille.

Notwithstanding the difficulty experienced in obtaining reliable information from Native sources, it is a fair calculation that 527 cash constitutes the cash-value fall of the Haikwan tael between 1892 and 1901.

The long-continued and widespread dearness of copper cash in relation to silver deserves very serious consideration. This dearness is intensified locally by a sudden demand for cash from down river, and by one of the periodical prohibitions of the use of the under-sized cash that oust the good cash from circulation; so that whereas one Haikwan tael exchanged on an average for 1,538 cash during the first nine months of 1895, in December of the same year it would only buy 1,389 cash. Retail prices, which are measured in cash, have nominally remained unchanged; but it takes more silver to buy the same number of cash to pay prices. Measured in silver, therefore, the retail prices are higher; and, as the world has found out, relative fluctuations in measures of value have done more harm than good to trade.

In the Wuhu Decennial Report, 1882-91,* Mr. WOODRUFF wrote:—"When spurious cash become so abundant as to cause general complaint, and, in consequence, proclamations are issued insisting on good cash, silver prices are at once increased to correspond to the increased value of the same number of better cash. When vigilance is relaxed, bad cash return; but the prices do not fall until the good cash are so far driven out that the badness has again attracted general attention. At all times there are frequent disputes and waste of time over the number of cash, or the proportion of good and bad cash, in the string, and over the purity or weight of sycee. There is in China an army of experts in cash and sycee whose occupation would be gone were the currency to be reformed, but the gain to the rest of the nation would be incalculable."

There are no dollars in circulation here; the Imperial Post Office and the Imperial Telegraph Office are the only two establishments at Chungking where dollars are accepted. The exchange for dollars varies from *Chungking Ta* 69-72 for \$100. The sum of 50,000 Hupeh dollars was introduced in 1896, together with cash notes. In 1897 another 50,000 dollars worth of silver tokens, produced by the Wuchang Mint, were brought to Chungking and put into circulation, and government notes of the face value of 1,000 cash were printed—these, unfortunately, were not 1,000-cash notes in reality, since they were fixed to exchange at 8 mace of silver, which only produced 900 cash at the time. The people, therefore, showed no inclination to make use of either the silver coin or notes, and the attempt to introduce them was a failure. To succeed in establishing the circulation of dollars, maintaining at the same time the confidence of the people, shops should be everywhere opened, under government auspices, which should always be prepared to exchange dollars into cash, and *vice versa*, at a fixed rate; besides, all government offices should pay their staffs and receive taxes, Likin, etc., in dollars. One great obstacle to a dollar currency is the enormous power of the Shansi banks; they would always be against the use of subsidiary silver coins, and the only probable remedy for their certain opposition would be a strong order from the Central Government.

A table showing the average prices of the principal articles of Native produce at Chungking, for the period 1892-1901, forms Appendix No. 1, and by it will be seen a general diminution in the purchasing power of silver.

From what has already been said, it appears perfectly clear that the dearness of copper cash has put the merchants of Chungking in a very disadvantageous position, more especially in the market of articles coming from Foreign countries and bought in gold—they thus being, so to speak, placed between two fires, by having to buy in gold or in cash and sell in the fluctuating medium of silver.

(f.) The following table shows the annual net values of Imports at moment of landing (*i.e.*, minus Import Duty and charges), and of Exports at moment of shipment (*i.e.*, plus Export

* Page 248.

Duty and charges), from 1892 to 1901; also the annual excess in the value of Imports over the value of Exports:—

YEAR.	IMPORTS: Value at Moment of Landing.	EXPORTS: Value at Moment of Shipment.	EXCESS OF IMPORTS OVER EXPORTS.
	<i>Hk. 7h</i>	<i>Hk. 7h</i>	<i>Hk. 7h</i>
1892.....	5,788,087	3,470,314	2,317,773
1893.....	4,717,538	4,187,914	529,624
1894.....	5,376,953	5,686,912	309,959 *
1895.....	6,376,145	7,264,204	888,059 *
1896.....	7,354,079	5,940,278	1,413,801
1897.....	10,433,617	7,644,495	2,789,122
1898.....	10,730,846	6,629,640	4,101,206
1899.....	15,763,533	10,011,800	5,751,733
1900.....	16,215,955	7,890,503	8,325,452
1901.....	14,071,637	10,322,332	3,749,305

* Excess of Exports over Imports.

(g.) The population of Szechwan has been estimated at 70 millions; but I am unable to say how these figures were arrived at. It has been, however, proved that no area of the same extent in China supports such a dense population as the central basin of Szechwan, due in great measure, no doubt, to the fact that there has been peace during the whole of the last century (the Taiping Rebellion did not reach the plain country) and to the happy rarity of calamitous pestilences and famines. There are no very large cities in the province, but a great number of towns with over 20,000 inhabitants, while the plain of Ch'êng-tu has been aptly described as resembling "one large village." Mr. HOBSON, in the last Chungking Decennial Report, puts the population at a probable 35 millions, which is too low a figure, according to present-day travellers and missionaries; these make an estimate of from 45 to 55 millions; and I am disposed to give a number between the two as fair and approximately correct. The population has certainly been increasing rapidly since 1812, when, in WILLIAMS' "Middle Kingdom," it is put at 21,500,000. If we accept this estimate as a basis to work on (and it is as good as any other), it would not be going too far to suppose that the population had more than doubled itself since that time. In support of this supposition may be mentioned—

- 1°. Marriage in Szechwan takes place at a very early age, and the consequences in the shape of the rising generation are ubiquitous;
- 2°. A big family is, to the Native mind, content (although it would not seem to spell comfort), and the women of Szechwan are renowned for being prolific;
- 3°. All the necessities of life may be enjoyed in this favoured region of all-round prosperity by him who possesses an annual income of 30,000 cash (or, say, £4).

In estimating the population of this province, with its area as large as that of France, it must be remembered that calculation is not easy, as there are large tracts of mountainous country peopled by aboriginal tribes whose numbers cannot be even conjectured.

The population of Chungking is estimated at 300,000.

(h.)

(i.) During the night of the 30th September 1896 a serious landslip occurred on the Yangtze, at a place called Ta-chang, 15 miles above Yün-yang-hsien city. The bed of the river, which at this point was some 1,200 feet wide, was reduced by the fallen earth and boulders to about 250 feet, causing a current so strong and abrupt that all traffic was stopped and hundreds of junks accumulated below; the pressure, however, was somewhat relieved when the local pilots had had time to study the new condition of affairs. Every bale of goods had to be landed and carried over a long stretch of rocks, the empty boats being hauled up with much difficulty by large bands of trackers. Accidents were frequent, and many lives were lost. The spot where the landslip occurred was a solitary one; but in a few weeks it was estimated that the place could boast of a population of over 10,000 trackers and porters, all living in matsheds. The officials took the matter in hand, beginning by making improved portage roads, while the Viceroy placed a sum of money at the disposal of the authorities for the purpose of attempting to remove the projecting points of rock in the channel when the water was low. The newly-formed rapid disappeared during the high water; but when the river fell it was found to be as bad as ever, and the transshipment and portage of cargo again became necessary. Lack of proper appliances placed the task of improving the passage beyond the powers of Native experts, so, eventually, the Inspector General of Customs was asked if he would appoint Foreign engineers to carry out the work. Accordingly, in the beginning of 1898, Messrs. TYLER and DONALD, of the Customs Service, were despatched to superintend proceedings; and after careful study of the subject, they commenced extensive operations to reduce the spit formed on the north bank of the river and to blast with dynamite the large boulders obstructing the channel on the south bank. In addition, a level tracking-path was constructed, to facilitate the towage of upward-bound junks. So admirably was the work carried out, in the short time allowed before the rising of the river, that it seems a pity it was not continued the following year; but the troubles which afflicted Szechwan at the time and the many changes which took place among the responsible Native authorities were no doubt the reasons why the rapid was not again taken in hand. Anyway, it is now no more dangerous than the other bad rapids existing on this part of the Yangtze.

The following excellent description of the disaster, by a correspondent, appeared in the "North-China Herald" in February 1897:—

"The new rapid is not like the ancient, orthodox rapids, which only demanded ordinary skilful navigation to be passed in comparative safety: the new obstruction is a terrific torrent, in appearance much like the whirlpool rapid below Niagara Falls. The whole volume of the mighty Yangtze, compressed into a channel 80 yards wide, dammed back and escaping through this narrow channel in a slope of some 10 feet fall, rushes down at a tremendous pace in huge foaming breakers. Below, where the river expands again, are hideous whirlpools, which

are liable to catch up a descending junk and hurl her against the rocks. We, ourselves, witnessed a big salt junk—empty, of course—thus caught. She struggled over an hour going up in the eddy, descending the rapid only to be caught up again, shipping small seas each time. At length the efforts of 60 men straining at her big oars and yulohs succeeded in extricating her. Towing up, all depends on the security of the bamboo tow-lines, a large empty junk taking 400 men to haul her through, literally, inch by inch. The trackers go along the top of a wall of rock, now about 60 feet above the river level, the junk being underneath and out of their sight. It is against this jagged rock wall that descending junks are liable to be thrown by the current, if they escape the whirlpool on their left. On the eve of the Chinese New Year a junk rowed by 18 men was caught by the eddy on the right, before the descent was completed, and dashed against these rocks. Six lives were saved by the 'red boats,' but 12 were lost. Safety lies in descending the rapid in the centre, where the compression has arched the water and piled it high above the level of the eddies on each side: to hit this centre, the descending junk has to steer between a gap in the reef over which the water falls before it forms a rapid. The reef was harmless originally, as the main body of the river lay to the south of it; now the new land-slide has pushed up to the reef, and through it the whole river now passes.

"The origin of the rapid has already been described; it is a huge landslip on the south shore, about half a mile wide and three times as deep, which has become detached from the mountain that bounds the river valley on the south and has slid forward into the water, narrowing the channel by two-thirds. The moving land is composed of regular blocks of sandstone detritus embedded in a stiff red loam. The face of the mountain from which the detritus has been detached forms a vertical cliff some 800 feet high. The cause of the 'slide' appears to have been the washing out of the earth beneath this hill of detritus by the continuous rains last autumn. Thus undermined, a subsidence took place, the loosely-composed foot-hill broke away from the solid mountain against which it leaned and slid forward into the river bed, forming a point—at a spot where formerly existed a quiet bay known as 龍井灣 ('Dragon's Pool')—which now runs out to meet an old reef of rocks on the south shore, thus almost completely barring the river. The 'slide' occurred in the night on the 29th of the 9th moon; but the occupants of the various farms which cover the surface were warned by ominous rumblings and crackings the day before, and so had time to clear out. Not so the inhabitants of a valley just below, through which flows an affluent of the Yangtze. Here a navigable river was entirely dammed across, and the navigation now goes no further than the foot of the land-slide, about 5 miles in, and over which the stream now descends in a fine waterfall. Sixty people lie buried in the detritus. The loss of life at the new rapid itself is estimated by the Yun-yang Magistrate, in charge of the new town which has sprung up there, at over 1,000 in the first three months. Indeed, it ought not to be navigated at all until the obstruction is removed. As an inscription now placed a mile above the rapid, to warn descending boatmen who may be ignorant of its existence, states, it is a 'vicious rapid'; this inscription, conspicuous in big white characters, runs, 新出惡灘 ('A bad rapid' has newly arisen)."

(j.)

(k.) On the 29th May 1895 the British Consul received a telegram informing him that the day before—the Dragon-boat Festival day—the buildings of the Canadian Methodist Mission at Ch'eng-tu had been looted and burned by rioters. On the 31st came the news that all mission buildings—both Roman Catholic and Protestant—had been destroyed, but the Foreigners were in safety in the yamèn of the Hua-yang Magistrate at Ch'eng-tu; the news was confirmed later, and the movement began to spread. Among the official proclamations issued at Ch'eng-tu, one, by the Pao-chia Chii, stated that there was proof of Foreigners kidnapping children and the officials had determined to deal severely with them. The mission premises at Hsin-ching, P'eng-shan, and Chia-ting were destroyed, but the inmates were well cared for by the officials. At Ya-chou, Sui-fu, and Lu-chou the missionaries abandoned their houses by advice of the authorities. Twice during fête days it was evident that the organisation concerned in the Ch'eng-tu riot was trying to incite trouble at Chungking, but prompt action put an early stop to all efforts to cause an outbreak. Late in June a party of rioters looted some property belonging to Roman Catholic converts about 30 miles from here; and it was probable that this action gave rise to the report that all Foreign premises in Chungking, including the Customs, had been destroyed. In the south-west of the province anti-Foreign outbreaks occurred at several Roman Catholic stations, and attacks were made by bands of Chinese and Lolos—the latter being specially bought over to assist in the rioting. For a time it seemed that the movement in the province would turn into a rebellion; but the nature of the instructions issued from Peking were such as to make the officials use their utmost powers to suppress an outbreak; many of them were dismissed or degraded and an indemnity of Tta 750,000 paid.

The following is a brief account of what occurred at Ch'eng-tu:—On the day of the Dragon Festival (5th day, 5th moon) a Foreign member of the Canadian Mission went to look on at a game that was being played in the streets. Almost immediately cries arose from the crowd to "Strike the Foreigner!" and forthwith commenced a shower of stones thrown by small boys; these boys were joined by a lot of loafers; and the Foreigner had barely time to escape into his house without receiving serious injury. The crowd, who had followed, then began shouting that he had dragged a child in with him, and getting more and more tumultuous, the Foreigner came out again and attempted to address the people, but was obliged to retreat in-doors once more. The door of the house was then broken down, and the rioters, rushing in, commenced to tear everything from off the walls and loot whatever they could pick up. About 4 o'clock in the afternoon two Magistrates arrived to endeavour to calm the people, who had, however, by that time got quite out of hand: they were insulted, their official chairs were broken, and the mission house was fired. The Fantai sent pumps to extinguish the flames; but these were also destroyed; and the rioters then directed their attention to the Methodist Episcopal Mission, which, in spite of the efforts of the officials to prevent it, was treated in the same way as the Canadian Mission property had been. By 10 o'clock the following morning the quarters of the American Mission in the Shansi Kai were also attacked, before the eyes of the mandarins. It was now plain that the passions of the multitude had been thoroughly aroused, and the Roman Catholic Bishop, at the instance of his converts, repaired to the yamèn of the Tartar General to demand soldiers for the protection of his residence. The Bishop was being conveyed in a small sedan chair, when he was recognised, and the crowd surged round him

uttering menaces, and eventually broke down the chair; the Bishop was dragged out, and would, no doubt, have been badly mauled, if not murdered, had not the General's troops, coming opportunely on the scene, managed to get him into a tea-house close by. The General, directly he heard of the Bishop's plight, came himself to the rescue and conducted the prelate to his yamén, followed by a flight of stones and other missiles. At noon an attack was made on the Bishop's residence, and a French priest had barely time to escape to the house of a friendly farmer, when the crowd broke in and the work of pillage and destruction continued. The officials appeared powerless to restore order, although the Viceroy himself came out with a company of soldiers. At 5 o'clock in the afternoon the Prefect invoked the aid of the street authorities, and told them that the Viceroy gave orders not to let the Bishop's house be set on fire, as it was close to his yamén, which might also catch fire. With this object in view, the two Magistrates and other officials were sent with the Viceroy's guard to try and prevent further destruction; but it was only after the place had been completely looted that the mob was persuaded to disperse, leaving nothing but the walls of the house standing. On the morning of the next day, the soldiers having departed, the riffraff of the city returned, and shortly afterwards, so well did they do their work, there was not a brick left standing on another. While the act of demolition was proceeding at the Bishop's house, other bands of rioters were busy elsewhere. The newly-finished oratory and orphanage, as well as the still incomplete "Palais Episcopal," were pillaged, demolished, and burnt, while the 60 little girls, inmates of the orphanage, escaped wherever they could. The Roman Catholic hospital was also burnt to the ground, and what became of the 50 patients who were undergoing treatment in the building is not known. All Protestant missionaries and their families had, in the meantime, found refuge in the yamén of the Hua-yang Magistrate, where everything possible was done for their comfort, until such time as arrangements could be made for their removal to a place of safety.

Serious disturbances occurred during 1896 in the mountainous country between the State of Lhasa and the Szechwan frontier. The then Viceroy of Szechwan, LU CHUAN-LIN, sent commissioners to the disturbed districts, nominally to restore order, but in reality to prospect for gold; and these officials were resisted in arms by the Thibetan chieftains. The Viceroy then despatched an expedition to subdue the States of Chantui and Derge and bring them under the jurisdiction of the Chinese authorities. The Lhasa Government, on hearing of the activity of the Chinese, and fearing interference with the independence of the Thibetan chiefs, while knowing its own incapability to raise a sufficient army to repel the invaders, appealed to Peking, through the Tartar General at Ch'eng-tu—a personal enemy of the Viceroy LU. The Lamas threatened that, if the troops were not forthwith withdrawn, they would open negotiations with the Indian Government direct, in order to enlist its aid on their side. The Viceroy's troops, in the meanwhile, had come to conquer, and had treacherously seized the chief of Derge, together with his son, and sent them as prisoners to Ch'eng-tu, where, shortly afterwards, the chief died. This state of affairs was made a ground for the impeachment of the Viceroy, who received stringent orders from Peking to release and return the son of the deceased chief, as well as to restore the authority of the other local chiefs who had been deposed. The Viceroy was also recalled, the Tartar General put in his place, the Chinese troops immediately withdrawn, and the country handed over to Lhasa.

In July 1898 an anti-Christian outbreak occurred near Yung-chuan, about 100 miles south-west of Chungking, under the leadership of a peasant named YÜ TUNG-CH'EN (余德臣), better known as YÜ MAN-TZÜ (余蠻子), "the Savage." Some few years previously this man had become notorious in the province by being the cause of anti-missionary disturbances, he having been arrested and put into goal at Yung-chuan, but was rescued from custody by his friends. He gathered together about 200 *t'u-fei*, armed with spears and matchlocks, kidnapped a Roman Catholic priest—Père FLEURY—living near Ta-tzu, giving out, at the time, that he would hold the priest as a hostage until former offences were pardoned and a ransom of 750,000 paid. So bitter was the feeling of the people against Foreign missionaries and Christian converts, that the officials were powerless to act in the matter, and their position was rendered more difficult through fear of YÜ MAN-TZÜ carrying out a threat to put the priest to instant execution if his demands were not complied with—the French Minister having notified the Viceroy that he (the Viceroy) would be held responsible if anything serious happened to the captive. While the officials were temporising, the movement was spreading and the rebel chief daily increasing his power, until he had a following of some 2,000 men. Official proclamations were issued ordering the band to disperse, although it was the prevailing belief that the officials themselves were secretly in sympathy with the movement. Be that as it may, it is certain that the majority of the country-people took courage from the apparent apathy shown by those in power, and, as only the Christian party (Roman Catholic and Protestant) was molested by the outlaw, YÜ MAN-TZÜ was looked up to by most as a patriot and not a rebel. His followers adopted uniforms, and, getting possession of some magazine rifles, began a systematic attack on Christian converts, their houses and churches. 750,000 were demanded by YÜ from the authorities, also 2,000 Mauser rifles, in addition to a free pardon for himself and the local officials—this to be guaranteed by the French Government,—before he would release his prisoner. It was also rumoured that he had demanded the retrocession of Kiaochoo and Port Arthur.

The following extract from one of the proclamations issued by the rebel leader is of interest, showing, as it does, the professed object of the rising:—

"I, YÜ TUNG-CH'EN, a patriot of China and a loyal subject of the Emperor, make a statement. All the subjects of our Ch'ing dynasty are loyal; so who would dare to accept the religion of barbarians and savages? These Foreigners, under pretext of trading and preaching Christianity, are in reality taking away the land, food, and clothing of the people, besides overturning the teaching of the sages—they are poisoning us with opium and ruining us with debauchery. Since the time of TAO KUANG they have intimidated our Court and coerced our officials; they have seized our territory and cheated us out of our money; they have eaten our children as food and piled up the public debt as high as the hills; they have burnt our palaces and overthrown our tributary states, occupied Shanghai, devastated Formosa, forcibly opened Kiaochoo, and now wish to divide up China like a melon. Never has the rapacity of the barbarians and savages been so great as at the present moment. When the Emperor HSIEN FENG went to Jehol, was it not these dogs and goats who forced him there? What loyal subject, therefore, does not hate them? I am not a learned man; but I know what patriotism means. The officials have not dealt justly with me, or examined fairly into my case. The tigers and

wolves from beyond the seas have slaughtered our poor people; but I, a patriot, have been often favoured by heaven. This year the Christians, through bribery, caused me to be seized and taken to Yung-chuan. I put not my trust in barbarians, but in my friends: my cause was vindicated, not by the officials, but by the people, and all from the neighbouring districts rushed to my rescue. Now the treacherous barbarians say that I am a dangerous brigand, escaped from prison, and are calling out troops against me. I have nothing for it, therefore, but to raise patriotic troops who will wipe out my country's shame. All followers of CONFUCIUS, of whatever class, may rest at ease—I will not hurt them! The officials, soldiers, and police belong to our Emperor, and if they do not molest me, I will not harm them, but only slaughter the Foreigners. I am not a rebel, and all those who treat me as a brigand, I, in my turn, will treat as Foreigners. Chinese Christians who repent may redeem grace by payment; any brave man who follows me will be well rewarded, and together we will do great things. My object is to be the champion of China, to vindicate the truth of the sages, to deliver the people, and redress my grievances. I give my body for my country; I have soldiers, but no money, so the gentry must give patriotic supplies for the needs of those under the patriotic flag. My men fear not hunger—they will accomplish their duty! Let us overcome our troubles; let us publish abroad our patriotic grievances; let us make ready our spears and swords, and drive out these dogs and goats from Foreign lands."

In September (the French priest being still a captive) YÜ MAN-TZÜ commenced to levy taxes on his own account, and his power extended over the districts of Ta-tzü, Tung-liang, Pi-shan, and Yung-chuan, his emissaries, besides, being busy in other places not within his sphere of influence. At Ho-chou, for instance, the American hospital was looted and a large Roman Catholic establishment completely destroyed by fire. News came daily to Chungking of other outrages in the interior; so the British and American residents held a meeting, and measures were planned for the safety and escape of the women and children in case of near approach of trouble. Some of the richer Chinese had already secured boats, in order to be able to flee at a moment's notice; but the people in the city remained generally quiet and peaceful. It seems almost incredible that a common man, not even able to write his own name, and with only a following of the usual Chinese rabble, could so completely set at defiance the government of this great province; but such undoubtedly was the case—the authorities, apparently, being still incapable of restoring order.

Affairs were in this state when rumours arose that YÜ was about to march on Chungking with 20,000 men. The Taotai wired to the Viceroy for reinforcements, the city being quite unfit to withstand an attack. On the 27th September YÜ MAN-TZÜ, with his whole force, a good number in uniforms, took up a position on the Ch'eng-tu road, near Yung-chuan, pillaging and burning the houses of Christians and levying contribution on the rich Chinese; he maintained perfect discipline amongst his men to the extent of prohibiting loot on non-Christians. Meanwhile the Consuls were sending violent telegrams to the Viceroy, who at last ordered 4,000 troops from Ch'eng-tu and other places to converge on Chungking. Bands of brigands began to appear in the neighbourhood of the city, and the greatest alarm prevailed amongst the Natives, while there was an influx of the richer gentry from the country. Placards appeared threatening an attack on the 30th of the month. The Magistrate, however, proved himself

equal to the occasion, and a number of the rebels, with uniforms, seals, etc., were seized 30 miles to the south-west of Chungking. Twelve of them were brought into the city, tried, and publicly executed with torture. Posters were put out stating that rioters would be killed on sight, and the gentry were commanded to raise a militia to patrol the streets. Most of the Foreign ladies and children were put into boats and sent across the water to the Customs pontoon, ready to leave for down river the moment the rebels appeared in force. These, however, with YÜ MAN-TZÜ at their head, were marching in the direction of Ho-chou; but taking fright before reaching there—probably because they were so far from home—they retreated back to Ta-tzü. In the meanwhile the property of the converts in the disturbed districts had been everywhere confiscated and handed over to YÜ MAN-TZÜ's followers, the converts themselves having to find shelter where they best could.

Matters had reached this pass when the Provincial Treasurer, WANG CHIH-CHUN, was ordered to put a stop to the revolt; but it was not until the 17th January 1899 that he at last succeeded in surrounding YÜ MAN-TZÜ, his lieutenants and about 6,000 men, in the Ta-tzü district. A couple of Maxims were brought to bear on the rebel camp, and a revolt that had lasted over seven months and cost the province millions of taels was completely wiped out by one volley: the rebels fled in all directions like rats from a terrier. YÜ and his right-hand man, CHIANG, gave themselves up, and were subsequently sent to Ch'eng-tu in chains. The day previous Père FLEURY had been released and narrowly escaped with his life to the Treasurer's camp—a fellow-captive, a Chinese priest, being killed by the rebels. The French father, who had then undergone over six months confinement, was, when he regained his liberty, in a pitiful plight through torture and suspense; but it appears that YÜ MAN-TZÜ—a man of passionate nature, one moment mastered by fits of ungovernable fury and the next bursting into tears of sorrow and repentance—had treated Père FLEURY fairly well, on the whole, and the priest owed his life more than once to the chief protecting him from violence at the hands of the rabble.

This revolt cost the province for indemnity over TTA 1,000,000, of which this department (川東) alone had to find TTA 500,000. YÜ MAN-TZÜ still remains a prisoner in the Nieh-t'ai's yamen at Ch'eng-tu, and is looked upon by most of the people in the light of a patriot and a hero; indeed, it would not be going too far to say that the officials themselves are somewhat of the same opinion, but, of course, do not give open expression to the belief. The Christian convert question, and the constant bickerings in this province, continue to be a source of irritation, nor does it require the power of great foresight to be able to prophesy another outbreak in the not very distant future.

The year 1897 will be remembered in Eastern Szechwan as that of the severest famine that the province has suffered in the memory of any living man. The Chia-ling River, up to Pao-ning-fu, was the western boundary of the really badly affected districts, it being in Ta-nin-hsien, Kuei-fu, Wan-hsien, and Liang-shan-hsien where there was anything like a total failure of grain—the two latter being densely populated. Further west, only half the crop was lost through mildew, while the northern districts were not affected at all. In Wan-hsien and Liang-shan, where the 1895 and 1896 crops had been poor, the price of rice had doubled as early as in the winter of 1896, and during the summer of 1897 travellers were obliged to take their supplies of food with them, as there were no eatables to be bought on the great

western road to Ch'eng-tu. Thousands of people died of sheer starvation, and more still in consequence of disease resulting from the bad times. Numbers of peasantry left their homes in the interior and came down to the river side, in order to be able to participate in government charity. Government subscriptions were raised everywhere in the Empire and among Chinese abroad beyond the seas. The Empress Dowager gave a sum of T\$ 10,000; the local officials opened granaries and organised free distribution of rice gruel; the gentry of the province subscribed to purchase rice, with a view to keeping down the market price; while all junks and trackers were appropriated for the transport of relief grain up the rapids. These trackers, who are themselves amongst the poorest class, were seriously diminished by famine and sickness, and many more absconded, in order to avoid being compelled by the government to serve for inadequate wages. In Chungking, during the summer, the price of rice stood at from 50 to 100 per cent. above the average, owing to the preliminary rush of grain to the eastern districts; and the various benevolent societies are said to have given over 8,000 coffins in the district alone—the beggar class being almost entirely annihilated. Great suffering was also felt in the Pao-ning district, although this part of the country depends largely on wheat and maize, and the food supply is not disturbed by the excessive planting of poppy. Further west still the crop was a good one, and, the officials not allowing rice to be carried down river, there was no great increase in the price. Around Ch'eng-tu, also, the officials managed to keep the price low, by threatening to seize the granaries of those landlords who did not bring their rice to that city. Sharp as this experience was, it remains a foregone conclusion that any failure of crops in these western parts—practically inaccessible to aid, as it were, from the lower river—must naturally fall more heavily on the people than in the more easily reached portions of the Empire.

On the 25th June 1895 a fire broke out near the Tai-ping Gate, and before the flames could be extinguished over 400 houses were totally destroyed. The great difficulty of coping with conflagrations in Chungking city, through the delay caused by having to bring water in buckets up the steep steps at each gate, was here fully demonstrated; but an ingenious scheme to pump water up into a reservoir at the north-west corner—the highest point—of the walls, and convey it thence in pipes or gutters round the city, with a tank above each gate, was vetoed by the officials. The reason given was the fear lest the water coolies would thus lose their means of subsistence—this water-carrying work gives employment to a large number, and is the last resource of broken men, so that any interference with them would undoubtedly have caused trouble. In response, however, to an application for subscriptions, the local gentry gave sufficient funds for the purchase of four fire-engines and appliances from Canton.

The following year, in August, the most disastrous fire that has ever been known in Chungking broke out in the south-east of the city—caused by the upsetting of a kerosene oil lamp. The official records show the number of houses gutted to be 1,083, and the damage done was assessed at a million taels. Many of the wealthiest Native firms were burnt out, and large stocks of Foreign piece goods and yarn were destroyed. As a result of this fire, the use of kerosene oil in the city was absolutely forbidden (but the order has since been allowed to lapse), and 10 small hand fire-engines were ordered from England, to be fitted with carrying-poles instead of wheels, so as to be able to negotiate the stone steps of which a great part of the city streets are formed.

(l.) An American Commission, to inquire into and settle the claims of American missionaries for the damage done to their property during the Ch'eng-tu riot, arrived at the provincial capital, overland from Peking, on the 15th December 1895, and, after having arranged matters satisfactorily, left again for Shanghai *via* Chungking and the river on the 1st January 1896.

In January 1896 a Japanese Commercial Mission—consisting of an official of the Japanese Board of Agriculture, the president of a business college, the representative of a steamer company, a newspaper reporter, and three Japanese merchants—visited Chungking. They made exhaustive inquiries as to banks, pawnshops and their rates of interest, the working of the Native postal hongs, weights and measures in use, freights, exchange, price of land and rates of wages, manufacture of matches, and as to the demand for Japanese goods generally.

In March of the same year "La Mission Lyonnaise d'Exploration commerciale en Chine," composed of 12 members, under the leadership of Mr. E. ROCHER, arrived in Chungking. They came in two parties from Tonkin, one coming through the province of Yunnan to Ch'eng-tu and thence to this port, the other making its way here through Kweichow. The Mission was made up of delegates from five French Chambers of Commerce, experts in silk, a mining engineer, and representatives of various other interests. Three of the members of the Mission left for Shanghai after a month's stay, and the remainder spent the summer in exploring the province, meeting again at Ta-chien-lu on the Thibetan border, and returning to Chungking in the autumn. They finally left this port, in November, in three parties—one proceeding through Kweichow and Yün-nan-fu, thence eastwards through Kiangsi and down the West River to Canton; one following the Yangtze for some distance, then striking south through Hunan and Kwangtung to Canton; and the third going direct down river to Shanghai.

In December 1896 the Blackburn Mission, consisting of two textile experts, under the leadership of Mr. F. S. A. BOURNE of the British Consular Service, visited Chungking. After a stay of three weeks, during which time they were busy collecting information, they left for the provincial capital.

Besides the above-mentioned Missions, Mr. BYRON BRENNAN, C.M.G., the then British Consul General at Canton—who was specially commissioned to make a tour of the Treaty ports for the purpose of inquiring into the conditions of British trade,—visited the port, for about a fortnight, in April 1896.

(m.) During the period 1892-1901 the province produced one *chuang-yüan*—the first, in fact, in the Szechwan capital's records since the present dynasty commenced to rule. The name of the successful candidate is LO CH'ENG-HSIANG (駱成驥), and his style KUNG SU (公驥); he is a native of Tzū-yang-hsien, in Tzū-chou.

(n.) and (o.) * * * *

(p.) The minerals found in Szechwan comprise gold, silver, copper, iron, quicksilver, coal, and petroleum; while the chief products exported consist of opium, hemp, white wax, silk, and some 250 varieties of medicines. The leading manufactures are silk piece goods, silk embroideries, lacquered and gilded articles of furniture, rugs of Thibetan wool and goat skins, mats, straw braid, basketware, preserved fruits, and fermented beverages. In the

absence of any published report by the many competent Foreign experts who have visited the province in late years, the output of such metals as gold and copper must remain a matter of conjecture; but the number of coal mines worked by primitive Native methods is astonishing. Coal can be bought at the pit's mouth for Ta 1.50 to Ta 2 per ton, and is retailed in many towns at Ta 3 per ton.

A scheme was under consideration in 1895 for the starting of a syndicate to attempt the development of the mineral resources of Szechwan by means of Foreign machinery. The project was first mooted by a wealthy Szechwanese, who laid before the Peking Board a full memorandum on the means he considered best to employ in order to attain the object in view. On the scheme being referred to the Viceroy for a report, this official took umbrage at what he considered the attempt of a private individual to obtain a complete mining monopoly, and denounced the whole affair, at the same time warning his subjects, by proclamation, not to have anything to do with the project. Considering the number of mining engineers, prospectors, etc., who have visited Szechwan during the past few years, one would have thought that some advance in mining enterprise would have resulted; but whether it is owing to the concessions offered by the Chinese authorities being insufficiently liberal to tempt speculators, or to unfavourable reports of the engineers on the country for mining, the fact remains that only the following ratified concessions have been secured up to the present—all by French assignees,—but not worked:—

For coal and iron: the six districts of Kuan-hsien (灌縣), Wei-yüan (威遠), Chien-wei (犍爲), Chi-chiang (荊江), Pa-hsien (巴縣), and Ho-chou (合州).

For the five metals: Tien-chiang (墊江) and Mei-kung (煤礦).

For petroleum: Pa-hsien (巴縣) and Wan-hsien (萬縣).

The climate of Chungking is, without doubt, depressing to a degree to Foreigners. The dreary skies and damp mists prevailing between November and March, the fierce heat of summer and practical absence of spring and autumn—meaning a quick change from hot to cold, and *vice versa*,—are most trying to all; add to all this the effects of isolation, residence within the city (and all that it implies), together with want of means for exercise and absence of amusement, and it is plain that everything combines to produce a state of mental and nervous depression, and perhaps a low standard of vitality. Still, it has to be said, on the other hand, that as far as diseases of an infectious nature are concerned, the port shows a distinctly good record; tuberculosis, however, is very common amongst the Natives.

"The following brief synopsis," to quote the Report for 1896 of Mr. J. N. TRATMAN, H.B.M.'s Consul, "will give a general idea of the principal uses to which the farmer puts his land in this part of the province of Szechwan; market gardening, which supplies cabbages and many similar vegetables, is a separate industry, confined in large part to the neighbourhood of the city:—

"November.—Broad beans, sweet peas, and wheat sown and springing up; poppy sown; paddy land lying fallow in water; ripe oranges in the market.

"December.—Crops as above stationary; poppy springing up; paddy land fallow.

"January.—Crops as above stationary; rape springing up; paddy land fallow.

"February.—Crops as above showing some advance; paddy land fallow.

"March.—Beans, peas, and rape in full flower; wheat and poppy advancing; paddy land fallow; peach and kindred trees in blossom.

"April.—Beans, peas, and rape in pod and then plucked; wheat in ear; poppy in full flower, then in capsule and generally scored; rice sown and springing up in nurseries; wood-oil trees in flower.

"May.—Poppy removed; wheat ripe then cut; paddy planted out from nurseries; Indian corn planted out; buckwheat in flower; nectarines and cherries in the market.

"June.—Indian corn in cob; paddy advancing; peaches on the market.

"July.—Paddy appearing in grain; millet in grain; Indian corn in cob; wood-oil nuts forming; small apples on the market.

"August.—Paddy in full grain; millet and Indian corn gathered.

"September.—Paddy all cut; sweet potatoes growing; land lying fallow to large extent; pears and persimmons on the market.

"October.—Wood-oil nuts gathered; much fallow land; green oranges and sweet potatoes on the market."

(q.) The following table shows the number and tonnage of chartered junks entered and cleared for the past 10 years:—

YEAR.	ENTERED INWARDS.		CLEARED OUTWARDS.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1892.....	1,203	33,518	676	9,776
1893.....	1,034	27,922	727	11,895
1894.....	1,180	34,134	813	12,945
1895.....	1,200	35,881	917	17,237
1896.....	1,279	36,500	779	16,114
1897.....	1,444	49,036	767	19,408
1898.....	1,434	48,298	681	16,877
1899.....	1,894	76,009	1,014	24,878
1900.....	1,846	62,147	835	22,715
1901.....	1,483	50,542	937	24,902

Apart from, and in addition to, the above, the number of Likin-paying junks noticed as passing the T'ang-chia-t'o Customs station, below Chungking, during last year (1901) was—

NO. OF JUNKS. APPROXIMATE TONNAGE.

		Tons.
Inwards	5,647	158,606
Outwards	6,080	175,980

The traffic westwards to Lu-chou and Sui-fu may be roughly estimated at 750 junks, with a probable carrying capacity of 15,000 tons, entering and clearing annually; and on the Little River, about 5,000 junks annually, with an aggregate tonnage of 80,000 tons.

Taking the above figures, it will be seen that the annual total entries and clearances of Native craft at Chungking are probably not less than 20,000 junks, with a tonnage of 500,000 tons.

Loss by damage through accident, on the voyage between Ichang and Chungking, probably represents 10 per cent. of the value of the cargo carried; but careful inquiry has failed to obtain evidence of the existence of any method of Native insurance. Some of the Foreign firm agencies are ready to accept risks for damage or total loss, but insuring cargo meets with no favour from Chinese merchants, who prefer to trust in luck rather than pay the heavy premium demanded by insurers.

(r.)

(s.) During July 1897 the Imperial Post Office started overland couriers between Ichang and this port for the conveyance of mails, since which date a service has been regularly maintained—a mail leaving Chungking once a week. Towards the end of 1901 branch post offices were established at Sui-fu, Chia-ting, Ch'eng-tu, and Pao-ning, and a regular service of couriers inaugurated between them and Chungking.

The table forming Appendix No. 2 shows the Native postal hong's functioning in Chungking, and the places with which they have communication, etc. The postage quoted is for letters only, and may be paid on delivery, except for letters to places beyond the hong's sphere of operations, in which case the sender pays postage to the receiving hong's terminus, where the letter is handed to another hong to transmit, the remaining postage being collected on delivery. The charge for parcels is from 60 cash a catty for places in Szechwan, and 200 cash for places in other provinces; but in most cases the charge is arranged for between the sender and the postal hong. The insurance fee for transmitting bank drafts to places in Szechwan is 6 per mille, and 2 per cent. in other provinces; the insurance is double for transmitting sycee. Insurance covers full value in case of loss through neglect of the hong, and half value if lost by robbery—except robbery under arms where the courier is killed, in which case the hong refunds nothing. The work of these postal hong's appears to be carried out in a satisfactory manner, and they are said to be entirely trustworthy. They do a large business in transmitting bank drafts and sycee; but are extremely chary of imparting information regarding their internal management.

(t.) Towards the close of 1893 a Customs station was established at T'ang-chia-t'o, a place some 10 miles below Chungking, and a Foreign officer posted there to examine all chartered vessels passing up and down. Owing to the nature of the voyage between Chungking and Ichang, the hatches of boats cannot be sealed, and on their arrival here, cargo is generally sent in cargo-boats from the junk in the anchorage to the Customs pontoon: no thorough examination of each vessel has hitherto taken place. The Custom House remains inside the city walls, while the examination station is, of necessity, on the other side of the river—a great inconvenience, more especially in summer, when it requires half a day to communicate from one to the other. It is impossible, however, to remedy all drawbacks, for the eccentricities in the rise and fall of the Great River will always make the situation of this port unsuitable for the convenient landing and shipping of cargo.

On the 1st day of April 1899 the Yangtze Regulations of 1898 were put into force at Chungking—the Revised Regulations of Trade on the Yangtze-kiang (1862), with the Port and Customs Regulations thereon dependent, being abrogated.

The advent of steamers to Chungking, in 1900, necessitated the framing of sailing rules for the Upper Yangtze, and at a meeting of the Consular Body and Commissioner of Customs provisional regulations were discussed and formulated.

On the 13th December 1901 regulations (originating from Ichang) were put into force at this port by which all vessels hired by Foreigners—in whole or in part—as passenger-boats were to report to the Custom House, where such certificates are issued as may be required to free the vessel and her freight from detention by offices *en route* to Ichang. The boats will be examined at the Customs T'ang-chia-t'o and Ping-shan-pa stations; and when passing Native barriers, must produce the Customs certificates, if required to do so.

(u.)

(v.) The number of missionaries resident in the province is increasing every year, but more especially in regard to female workers. The accompanying table is made up from information courteously supplied by the secretary of each denomination in Szechwan.

MISSIONS REPRESENTED IN SZECHWAN ON 31ST DECEMBER 1901.

DENOMINATION.	DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT.	NUMBER OF MISSIONARIES.		APPROXIMATE NUMBER OF CONVERTS.	NUMBER OF HOSPITALS, DISPENSARIES, REFUGES, ETC., MAINTAINED.
		Male.	Female.		
Missions Étrangères de Paris.	1753	124	...	93,623 converts	212 chapels; 425 schools; 10 hospitals; 180 dispensaries.
American Methodist Episcopal Mission.	1881	11	14	313 communicants; 609 probationers.	2 hospitals; 3 dispensaries.
London Mission	1887	5	3	160 communicants; 720 adherents.	1 hospital; 4 dispensaries.
Canadian Methodist Mission.	1892	8	15	50 converts	3 hospitals; 1 orphanage; 3 dispensaries.
Friends Mission	1886	8	10	27 members; 70 adherents.	2 dispensaries; 3 schools.
English Church Missionary Society.	1894	15	17	40 members; 30 catechumens.	
American Baptist Mission.	1890	7	6	100 converts; 760 adherents.	1 hospital; 2 schools.
China Inland Mission	1874	30	40	2,000 converts; 3,000 adherents.	2 hospitals; 1 refuge; 30 schools.
National Bible Society of Scotland.	1879	1	1	13 Native colporteurs.	

(w.) The following guild was established in 1892, in addition to those mentioned in the last Decennial Report:—

PROVINCE.	LOCAL NAME OF GUILD.	DEITIES ENSHRINED AND WORSHIPPED.
Yunnan and Kweichow	Yun-Kwei Kung-so (雲貴公所)	(Kuan-ti (關帝). Nan-ta-chiang-chün (南大將軍).)

A translation of the rules adopted by this guild forms Appendix No. 3.

Besides the nine provincial guilds existing at this port, there are the following trade unions:—

STYLE OF UNION.	TRADE.
Pa-ch'eng Kung-so (八省公所).....	Cotton.
Mai-p'ang " (買幫公所).....	"
Hang-p'ang " (行幫公所).....	"
Yen-p'ang " (鹽幫公所).....	Salt.
Tung-ching " (同慶公所).....	Cotton yarn.
Chih-p'ang " (紙幫公所).....	Paper.
Chiu-p'ang " (酒幫公所).....	Wine.
Tang-p'ang " (糖幫公所).....	Sugar.
Ch'ou-p'ang " (綢幫公所).....	Silk.
Shu-p'ang " (書幫公所).....	Books.
Honan " (河南公所).....	Various.
K'ou-p'ang " (扣幫公所).....	Buttons.

Although the Chungking chair and cargo coolies have not yet organised a trade union of the approved style, they are well able to protect their own interest, for all that. Every street and jetty has a head coolie in charge, and if your cargo lies on his beat, you apply to him to remove it for you: this is done at his own risk, under guarantee of its safe arrival wherever you want it. Should coolies be hired without applying to the headman, he refuses all responsibility in the event of goods being pillaged or lost. The coolies of one street, however, do not permit those of another to remove goods from their own particular street; so that when coolies are required, only those who belong to the part of the city wherein the goods lie can be employed. The chair-bearers, too, have fixed rates: they all belong to honges, of which there are 35 in the city, and the official control over them is so excellent that cases of obstruction are rare. The association, however, is not such a powerful one as that of their cargo-carrying colleagues.

(x.) to (z.).

CONCLUSION.—I have to record the assistance rendered by Messrs. KREMER and SIEBOLD, Assistants, in preparing this Report—the former for the information under letter (c.), the latter for that under letters (b.) and (g.); likewise to acknowledge the aid given by Mr. TWEEDIE, Postal Officer, in the subject dealt with under letter (a.).

W. C. HAINES WATSON,

Acting Commissioner of Customs.

CUSTOM HOUSE,
CHUNGKING, 31st December 1901.

APPENDICES.

APPENDIX No. 1.

AVERAGE PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF NATIVE PRODUCE AT CHUNGKING, 1892-1901.

	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Bristles..... Per picul	10.70	10.70	13	17.60	22.50	19	19.40	19.10	17.50	19.80
Cow hides.....	6	7	9.40	9.50	9.50	12	13.60	16	15	14.60
Yellow silk.....	160	175	158.70	156.30	188	214.80	183	181	180	216
Refuse silk cocoons.....	35	40	41.40	36.30	36	41.40	40
Rhubarb.....	18.70	15	14.60	15.50	15	16.20	17	19.20	18	23
Musk..... Per catty	145	145	152.40	174	161	177	200.40	270.30	270	291
Wool..... Per picul	6	6.50	7.10	6.60	6.60	7.35	7.90	7.20	9	14.40
Fungus.....	18.50	12	13.50	18.70	24.30	22.10	22	20.20	21	23.90
Nutgalla.....	9	11.60	12.30	13.40	14	18.60	16.50	16.70	17.10	18
Hemp.....	4.20	6	6.20	7	7	7.20	7.10	6.80	6.40	5.90
Szechwan opium.....	160	203.40	260.40	240.60	200	220	281	260	279	256.50
Yunnan ".....	170	231.60	281.10	277.50	240	264	322	309	328.50	289.80
Brown sugar.....	2.35	3.30	3.67	3	3	3	3.60	3.90	3.60	4.10
White wax.....	38	60	91.30	84.60	83.30	81.90	85	48	52	47.30

APPENDIX

LIST OF NATIVE POSTAL HONGS FUNCTIONING

No.	NAME OF HONG.	WHEN ESTABLISHED.	HEAD OFFICE WHERE SITUATED.	OWNERS.		BRANCH OFFICES AT WHAT PLACES.
				Name.	Native Place.	
1	胡萬昌	1822	Hankow	胡湘南	湖南	漢沙宜興萬重成 口市昌府縣慶都
2	曾森昌	1880	Hankow	曾雲程	湖南	漢沙宜興萬重成 口市昌府縣慶都
3	麻鄉約	1866	Chungking	陳麻鄉	重慶	成嘉道貴打 都定州州城
4	祥合源	1883	Chungking	王祥合	重慶	潼叙昭雲 州府通省
5	松栢長	1823	Chungking	陳松栢	重慶	潼叙昭雲秦廣 州府通省州元
6	三廂子	1883	Chungking	王興合	重慶	合順保潼射綿遂 州慶甯川洪州甯
7	雷春林	—	Chungking	雷鳴春	重慶	綏渠 定縣

No. 2.

IN CHUNGKING ON 31ST DECEMBER 1901.

AGENTS AT WHAT PLACES.	CAN SEND MAIL MATTER—				REMARKS.
	To what Places.			On what Days.	
	Places.	Postage.	Time en route.		
湘 潭	漢沙宜興萬重成 口市昌府縣慶都	60 cash	8-10 days	6 times a month	By boat.
		"	7-9 "	" "	"
		"	5-6 "	" "	"
		40 cash	3-4 "	" "	"
		30 "	2-3 "	" "	"
		—	—	—	—
長 沙	漢沙宜興萬重成 口市昌府縣慶都	40 cash	7-9 days	6 times a month	Overland.
		60 cash	8-10 days	6 times a month	By boat.
		"	7-9 "	" "	"
		"	5-6 "	" "	"
		40 cash	3-4 "	" "	"
		30 "	2-3 "	" "	"
重 慶	成嘉道貴打 都定州州城	—	—	—	—
		40 cash	7-9 days	6 times a month	Overland.
		32 cash	8 days	9 times a month	Overland.
		40 "	10 "	" "	"
		24 "	4 "	" "	"
		72 "	12 "	" "	"
重 慶	潼叙昭雲 州府通省	100 "	15 "	" "	"
		24 cash	4 days	9 times a month	Overland.
		32 "	6 "	" "	"
		80 "	20 "	" "	"
		180 "	50 "	" "	"
		—	—	—	—
重 慶	潼叙昭雲 州府通省	—	—	—	—
		24 cash	4 days	6 times a month	Overland.
		32 "	6 "	" "	"
		80 "	20 "	" "	"
		180 "	50 "	" "	"
		120 "	13 "	3 times	"
重 慶	合順保潼射綿遂 州慶甯川洪州甯	80 "	10 "	" "	"
		24 cash	1½ days	6 times a month	Overland.
		40 "	4 "	" "	"
		48 "	6-7 "	" "	"
		56 "	7 "	" "	"
		48 "	5 "	" "	"
重 慶	綏渠 定縣	56 "	7-8 "	" "	"
		48 "	5 "	" "	"
		56 cash	7 days	6 times a month	Overland.
		48 "	6 "	" "	"
		—	—	—	—
		—	—	—	—

APPENDIX No. 3.

RULES AND REGULATIONS OF THE YUNNAN-KWEICHOW GUILD.

1.—This guild shall be called the "Yun-Kwei Kung-so"; its members will be composed of the wealthy class and merchants of the two provinces living at Chungking. Every year two members of ability and honesty—one for each province—shall be elected headmen of the guild: their duties will be to look after the guild's business, keep accounts, etc., etc. On the expiry of their year of office, the two headmen shall hand over the accounts, duly audited, to their elected successors.

2.—The two headmen shall order the guild-keeper to prepare candles and incense for their personal worship in the mornings of the 1st and 15th day of each moon; they will then make it their business to inquire into and see to the guild's welfare, which they are to consider as their own.

3.—This guild is established for worship, and for the social and business meetings of the natives of the two provinces. There will be a keeper and two coolies employed to look after the premises, and no outsider will be allowed to frequent the place, nor may any part of the guild building be let to them: breach of these rules will entail immediate dismissal.

4.—The income derived from the property and graveyard of the guild shall go, proportionately, towards the expenses for sacrifice and general meetings; any balance shall be saved carefully and deposited with our own merchants, at a fixed rate of interest. The income of the guild being small, any natives of the two provinces will be welcome to subscribe, and it is thus hoped to form a reserve fund.

5.—Officials or merchants not residing permanently at Chungking shall not be allowed to take charge of the guild and its funds.

6.—The headmen of the guilds of the other eight provinces established in Chungking help each other in the transaction of public business; but the membership of our guild being so small, its powers are weak, and we have petitioned to be exempt from public business, except that which concerns ourselves.

7.—Natives of the two provinces passing through Chungking without their families, whether officials or merchants, who have previously subscribed towards the guild, on notification being given to the headman, shall be allowed to stay at the guild premises for one moon; but such official or merchant must provide his own food, and should there be any guild meeting held during his stay, he will be required to absent himself from the building.

8.—The guild shall make two sacrifices each year, in the spring and autumn, to *Kuan-ti* and *Nan-ta-chiang-chün*, when a member of standing and respectability will be elected to take charge of the proceedings. There will be at the same time sacrifices made to the respected manes of deceased clansmen. Members are requested to attend officially on these occasions.

9.—Notification shall be sent to members five days before each meeting; the expenses of such meetings to be defrayed by subscription, until such time as the guild's funds are sufficient to meet them without further aid.

10.—Members deceased whose character for honesty and straight dealing would not bear the strictest investigation shall not be allowed to have a tablet erected for them in the hall arranged for that purpose.

11.—A sum of $\text{T} \text{t} \text{a}$ 20 has been set apart and put on deposit, under the directions of a separate committee, for the use of meetings in honour of the God of Riches and the River God, in order to prevent spending the general funds of the guild. Anyone wishing to join can send his name to any member for introduction to the society.

12.—The headman of the graveyard shall give a feast five days before the Festival of the Tombs, to celebrate the occasion. Members can then see for themselves if the boundary stones are in their proper places and if any outsider has been surreptitiously interred in the graveyard.

13.—The graveyard is only for the burial of the deceased natives of the two provinces. Any member wishing to be interred in this cemetery must notify the headman of the guild, who will give a stamped note, bearing the particulars of his name and place of birth; when the member dies, the note will be examined by the graveyard-keeper, who, if all is in order, will assign the place for a grave. No one belonging to another province will be allowed to be interred in the guild's graveyard, and should it be discovered that such a breach of rule has been committed, the keeper of the yard will be fined $\text{T} \text{t} \text{a}$ 50 and the coffin will be removed.

14.—Some of our silk merchants having been continually brought into lawsuits by creditors, over $\text{T} \text{t} \text{a}$ 2,000 were paid by the guild in liquidating their liabilities. These silk merchants, in return, petitioned the officials to have certain land property of theirs handed over to the guild. This petition was granted by the Taotai Li; so the property is now guild property. It is now arranged that the former owners of such property, when passing through Chungking, shall have the privilege of being invited to any of the feasts given by the guild, provided the person hands in his name two days before to the headman. Should anyone wish to resign this right, given in virtue of former land ownership, he can do so, and be paid a sum of $\text{T} \text{t} \text{a}$ 3 from the guild's funds. Anyone found making a false statement in order to obtain this money will be handed over to the officials for severe punishment.

15.—Natives of the two provinces coming to Chungking to trade, who have been maltreated or defrauded by local storekeepers, may come to the headmen with their story, who will see that justice is done without prejudice.

ICHANG.

DECENNIAL REPORT, 1892-1901.

(a.) Picturesquely situated at the entrance to the Yangtze Gorges, in a broken and mountainous country destitute of roads or navigable streams, Ichang has not become, and is not likely to become, a distributing centre of trade. Attempts have been made, at intervals, to develop what agricultural and mining resources the district possesses, all of which have been abandoned owing to difficulties of communication and the lack of the necessary capital to overcome them. The port remains, therefore, a mere transshipment stage and taxing station for the Szechwan trade, and is indebted for the relatively high values it can show for both trade and Revenue entirely to the accident of its position and the exigencies of office routine. It is, at present, the extreme westward limit of steam transport for merchandise, which has to be re-distributed, and in some cases repacked, for the remainder of its journey. This change, from junk to steamer and from steamer to junk, involves various transactions which have required—and perhaps justify—the treatment of the goods in our statistics first as Imports and then again as Re-exports. The result is that Ichang, a port having little or no commerce of its own, was credited in 1899 with a trade of the gross value of over 30 millions of taels. In point of Revenue, the port ranked seventh among the Treaty ports in 1901; but it owes this eminence entirely to Native Opium, which is here taxed, on its way from Yunnan, Szechwan, and Kweichow, for the whole Empire.

Of the commercial history of Ichang during the decade, such as it is, by far the most noticeable feature is the evolution of the Upper Yangtze “chartered” junk, consequent on the opening of Chungking as a Treaty port in March 1891. This development placed the wealthy province of Szechwan, for the first time, in direct Treaty-Tariff communication with the rest of the Empire, and was expected to have momentous consequences. It will be seen later on that, up to the present, no great changes have resulted, and that the conditions of the Import trade in Foreign goods remain much what they were under the Native Customs *régime* and the Transit Pass. This may be partly due to the fact that merchant steamers have not yet succeeded in establishing themselves on the Upper Yangtze, in spite of much praiseworthy effort and enterprise.

By the Chefoo Convention of 1876,* the Chinese Government virtually consented to the opening of Chungking as a Treaty port as soon as “steamers have succeeded in ascending the river so far.” No attempt was made to fulfil this condition till 12 years later (February 1888), when that enterprising pioneer, Mr. ARCHIBALD LITTLE, appeared at Ichang with a steamer—the

* Sec. III, cl. i.

Kuling, of 304 tons—specially built for the navigation of the rapids. Even this, however, was too soon for the Chinese authorities, who eventually purchased the *Kuling* and handed her over to the China Merchants Steam Navigation Company, for which she has made many profitable trips between Hankow and Ichang, and still continues to run on that line. Just 10 years later, in February 1898—Chungking having been made a Treaty port in the interval with the original condition unfulfilled, i.e., without any steamer having “ascended so far,”—Mr. LITTLE reappeared, with a steam-launch called the *Leechuan*, which left for Chungking on the 14th February and arrived there on the 9th March. This small vessel was the first to defile the virgin waters of the Upper Yangtze with the ashes of the engine-room; but, as she was towed up the rapids much in the same way as an ordinary Native boat, she did little or nothing towards settling the question whether the Upper Yangtze was navigable for merchant steamers. Nor can the successful ascent of the river as far as Chungking by the British shallow-draught gun-boats *Woodcock* and *Woodlark*, in April-May 1899, be said to have been much more conclusive, infinitely valuable as their experiences and the information gained by them must have been. The honour of having first demonstrated the navigability of the Upper Yangtze by a cargo-carrying steamer remains with Mr. LITTLE and his partners of the Yangtze Trading Company, whose steamer, the *Pioneer*—a vessel of 331 tons register, built in England,—made the passage from Ichang to Chungking in June 1899, taking eight days only, nearly 23 years after the signing of the Chefoo Convention in which it had been stipulated that Chungking should be opened “when steamers have succeeded in ascending the river so far.” This vessel was sold to the British Government at Chungking, and had no opportunity of proving herself commercial success, or the reverse, as a carrier of freight. As a man-of-war—H.B.M.S. *Kinsha*—she has made several trips between Ichang and Chungking.

The next attempt to ascend the river by a merchant vessel was that of the German s.s. *Suihsiang*, of 358 tons, specially built in Europe for the purpose. This vessel left Ichang for Chungking on the 27th December 1900, and was wrecked the same day at K'ung-ling (崑陵), a dangerous crossing some 40 miles above Ichang. Since then no further attempt has been made by a merchant steamer to ascend the Upper Yangtze, and its navigation by steam has been confined to the vessels of Foreign navies—the British gun-boats *Woodcock*, *Woodlark*, and *Kinsha*, and the French gun-boat *Olry* and the steam-launch attached to her.

(b.) In addition to the Yangtze, there are three trade routes connecting Szechwan with Hupeh and the rest of the Empire. The first, the northern, now of little importance, follows the Ch'ü-ho (渠河) as far as Sui-ting-fu (綏定府), and strikes the Han River at Hsing-an-fu (興安府). The second, the central, takes a direct line overland from Chung-chou (忠州), through Shih-nan-fu (施南府), to I-tu (宜都), whence it connects with Shasi by water. The third, the southern, mainly a water route, starts from Fu-chou (涪州), and follows the Fu-ling (涪陵) River to Ch'ang-tê (常德) and the Tungting Lake. This last was at one period the main trade route for Szechwan, and is by far the most direct to the southern provinces. The opening of the Yangtze to steam as far as Ichang in 1877, however, and the commanding position held by Shasi as a commercial centre, had at the close of the last decade given the advantage, as an alternative to the Yangtze all-through route, to the Shih-nan-fu road. This,

in turn, lost much of its importance with the opening of Chungking as a Treaty port and the advent of the chartered junk on the Upper Yangtze, whereby Ichang was enabled, for the first time, to take its proper place as the starting-point for junk-borne goods going westward and steamer-borne goods eastwards.

It has been explained above that the trade of Ichang is not its own trade, but that of Szechwan. As with the river that bears it, we are able to observe its volume and its fluctuations, but can only hazard imperfect guesses at the influences which determine each rise and fall. These things are all known to my Chungking colleague, however, and it is with some trepidation that I venture to trench on his province and criticise, ever so generally, the trade which is his peculiar concern. In attempting here to analyse briefly the main features of that trade, I do so from the point of view of one outside the tabernacle, as it were, and with all the fallibility the situation implies.

The first impression produced by a cursory examination of the table (Appendix No. 1) accompanying this Report, in which are shown the values of the different branches of trade for each year of the decade, is distinctly encouraging. The gross value of the trade of the port has risen from some 7 million taels in 1891 to over 30 millions in 1899, and over 24 millions in 1901. The value of Foreign Imports, given as about 4 million taels in the last year of the previous decade, was over 15 millions in 1899 and over 11 millions in 1901. Native goods re-exported rose from 1½ million taels in 1891 to over 13 millions in 1899, and over 11 millions in 1901. The greater part of this advance may be put down at once to the change in the position of Ichang made by the opening of Chungking, already alluded to, and simply denotes a modification in trade conditions, not any expansion of trade. Goods which formerly were sent to Szechwan from Hankow under Transit Pass now went direct to Chungking under the Foreign flag of the steamer which carried them from Shanghai, and found their place in the Ichang statistics. Similarly, Native produce—and especially Opium—from Szechwan, forced from its “overland” routes by closer control on the part of the Native tax stations, and tempted by the advantages of steam transport and a single, unvarying Duty exempting from all further taxation *en route*, came to swell the figures of our statistics and our Revenue as well. Whether, side by side with this change in the conditions of transport, there has been any actual advance in the development of trade is another matter.

To take Foreign Imports first as the standard by which we are accustomed, as Foreigners, to measure the potentialities of a district as a field for trade. The gross value of these stood at 6 million taels for 1892, rose to well over 15 millions in 1899, and over 11 millions in 1901; that is to say, the value of Foreign goods which passed the Customs for Szechwan doubled during the decade. Yet, on examining the table (Appendix No. 2) giving the items of this branch of the trade, the first thing that strikes us is a pretty steady decline of the staples—such as Shirtings,—while a careful investigation of the figures will show that the gain in value is due partly to increased importations of Cotton Yarn and partly to enhanced silver values of all Foreign goods; Grey Shirtings, for instance, valued at *Hk.Ta* 1.60 per piece in 1892, were valued at *Hk.Ta* 2.70 per piece in 1901.

Of the 79 different items the table contains, the following show increases of greater or less significance during the decade:—

Products of Foreign Industry.

American Drills.	Italian Cloth.
" Jeans.	Woollen Yarn.
English Sheetings.	Clocks and Watches.
Cotton Lastings.	Aniline Dyes.
" Italians.	Needles.
Velvets.	Kerosene Oil.
Cotton Yarn.	Sugar.
Broadcloth.	Umbrellas.
Spanish Stripes.	Brass and Fancy Buttons.

Hongkong, Corea, and Straits Produce.

Cardamoms.	Ginseng.
Cassia.	Seaweed (Japanese).
Cuttle-fish.	

Among these, by far the most notable increase is that in Cotton Yarn, which accounts for no less than 5 millions out of the 9 million taels which the year 1901 can show as the value of its Foreign Imports in advance of the year 1892. Cotton Italians deserve notice also, representing, with Cotton Lastings, an increased import valued at nearly a million taels. Sheetings show slight but steady advance.

Among Sundries, Brass Buttons and Aniline Dyes appear to be the only manufactured articles for which the demand is increasing. There is possibly a future for Sugar (from Hongkong), once an export from Szechwan. Kerosene Oil, which, with Matches and American Flour, usually occupies so large a place among Foreign Imports, is, so far, an undeveloped trade here; the figures given in the table represent only a small portion of the total import, however, most of which goes through the Native Customs.

The articles in which decline was most pronounced were:—

Products of Foreign Industry.

Grey Shirtings.	Turkey Red Cottons.
White "	Camlets.
Dyed and Figured Shirtings.	Lastings.
Chintzes.	

The most important of these are Grey Shirtings, which fell off by 148,031 pieces.

On the whole, the Foreign trade of Szechwan appears to be a growing one. Its growth, however, is exceedingly slow, and it is not taking the direction that was anticipated. Cheap calicoes have quite failed to hold their own against the excellent Native Cloth manufactured

throughout the province and in Hupeh, which will probably always be preferred by the poorer classes of the population. On the other hand, there is evidently an increased demand for the heavier goods, such as Drills and Sheetings, and the more expensive fabrics, such as Cotton Lastings and Italian Cloth.

The tables of Native trade (Appendices Nos. 3 and 4) give the produce entering Szechwan as well as that which leaves it; but by selecting the items some idea may be gained of the development of the Export trade. The following is a list of the Szechwan products which have shown a greater or less tendency to advance at some period during the decade:—

Bristles.	Opium.
Duck and Fowl Feathers.	Silk and its Products.
Hemp.	Goat Skins.
Cow and Buffalo Hides.	Turmeric.
Medicines.	White Wax.
Musk.	Sheep's Wool.
Nutgalla.	

All these, I believe, with the exception of Hemp, Medicines, Opium, White Wax, and Turmeric, are exported to Foreign markets. The export of Bristles appears to have commenced with the decade, and has improved fairly steadily. Duck and Fowl Feathers show a satisfactory increase. Cow Hides and Goat Skins are a comparatively recent development, the first shipments having been made in 1894 and 1895 respectively: I understand there is an unlimited demand for these on the European markets. Musk is, after Opium and Yellow Silk, the most valuable item on the list, but the export is apparently a stationary one; it is to be noted that its assessed value has trebled during the decade. Nutgalls reached their highest figure in 1895, and have rather tended to decline since that year. With Silk, however, principally Yellow Raw, the tendency to advance has been continuous. Szechwan Refuse Cocoons are greatly in demand in Europe, I understand, and the figures show that the trade in this article is steadily expanding. The shipments of Sheep's Wool reached their highest point in 1896, but the prospects for this commodity are said to be encouraging. Silk Piece Goods, Opium, White Wax, Medicines, Turmeric, and, last but not least, Salt (which has no place in our Returns) find their market in the Empire: all these are flourishing trades.

What, then, are the conclusions to be drawn from this brief and imperfect review of the Szechwan trade that passes Ichang? The province is, to all appearance, quite as wealthy as it has been represented, and it is probable that the remarkable development of its Opium export during the decade has nearly doubled its purchasing power—the value of this product annually exported by the province when crops are good may be put down at not less than 10 million taels; that of Szechwan Salt, at 8 million taels. There is no doubt whatever, therefore, about the ability of the province to buy. Bearing this in mind, the first and most important lesson the facts suggest is, to my mind, the ignominious failure of the cheap calicoes of Lancashire to commend themselves to the poorer classes of the population—a failure, by the way, by no means confined to Szechwan. What the particular causes of this failure may be, I leave it to the experts to expound: undoubtedly, the cheapness and excellence of Indian Cotton Yarn

is one of them. The fact has to be recognised, as far as one can judge, that the clothing of China's millions by Western looms is a delusive dream, and that there is, at present, no indication whatever of any development on a large scale of the Piece Goods trade. As far as Szechwan is concerned, Cotton Yarn is likely to remain the principal Import; so far, India has supplied the bulk of this, the Chinese mills coming next, Japan following, and Manchester nowhere. There may, as already noted, be a future for Kerosene Oil in Szechwan; but the recent steps taken to work the Petroleum wells in the province, and the comparatively heavy freight on the imported article, make this doubtful. Aniline Dyes, Needles, and Clocks and Watches appear to complete the tale of Foreign goods for which there is likely to be any future demand in Western China.

It is less easy to draw conclusions regarding the Export trade of the province of Szechwan. The raw material it produces for the Foreign market forms a very small proportion of its total Exports, the bulk of which are consumed in China. Raw Silk, Sheep's Wool, Bristles, Goat Skins, and Musk are products the export of which may be expected, perhaps, to develop hereafter to some extent.

That portion of Western Hupeh which, since the opening of Shasi as a Treaty port, constitutes the Ichang district proper is, for the most part, agriculturally poor. The Shih-nan prefecture (施南府), on the Szechwan border, produces Black Tea which is said to be of remarkably fine flavour and quality, but it suffers from careless preparation and the long journey to Hankow. In 1896 some enterprising Cantonese started a factory in the producing district, and fired and packed their Tea on the spot, shipping it by steamer at Ichang. Unfortunately, their first venture did not prove a success, and the experiment, which might have succeeded if persisted in, was not repeated. The Shih-nan district also produces Hemp and Nutgalls in considerable quantities, and only requires capital and roads to become a flourishing tract. The neighbourhood of Ichang supplies small quantities of Vegetable Tallow, Varnish, Fungus, and Hemp. Bristles and Goat Skins have of late years been brought from the country to Ichang for shipment, the latter chiefly from I-tu (宜都).

On the "Middle Yangtze," i.e., the section of the river between Hankow and Ichang, the decade has witnessed a marked advance in the number of steamers employed—due not so much, it must be confessed, to any increased demand for steamer tonnage as to the competition of the Japanese and German lines, in a field of which the three companies, the China Merchants Steam Navigation Company (Chinese), the Indo-China Steam Navigation Company, and the China Navigation Company (the two latter British), had held undisturbed possession up to 1899. The first Japanese steamer, the *Tayuen Maru*, made its appearance in May 1899, and was followed by the *Tachi Maru* at the end of 1901; both these vessels belong to the Osaka Mercantile Steamship Company (Osaka Shosen Kaisha). In May 1901 the German flag appeared on the Middle Yangtze with the s.s. *Meiyu*, belonging to the North German Lloyd. The three older companies appear to have run independently on this line up to 1897, when they entered into a "pool" agreement similar to that in force on their lines elsewhere. Freights, which had been greatly reduced by competition, at once rose, to be subsequently depressed, doubtless by the competition of the Japanese and German lines. The end of the decade, therefore, finds a

wholesome rivalry animating the shipping firms, the three "pool" companies being combined against the independent Japanese and German lines.

It should be noted that the stern-wheel type of steamer, which when the last Decennial Report was written was considered the most suitable for the Middle Yangtze, has been displaced by the twin-screw vessel. The China Merchants Steam Navigation Company's s.s. *Kweilee* has three screws.

(c.) The Foreign Customs at Ichang depends for its Revenue almost entirely on Coast Trade Duty collected on Native Opium, shipped at Chungking by chartered junk and transhipped to steamer for conveyance to distant markets. The history and prospects of its Revenue can therefore be best studied under section (d.) of this Report, which treats of Native Opium. The figures rose from Hk.Tls 118,000 in 1892 to Hk.Tls 370,000 in 1901 (see Appendix No. 5).

Foreign Imports have, of course, paid Duty, for the most part, at Shanghai. Exports, consisting mainly of Szechwan produce brought down by Likin-paying junks, have never produced Hk.Tls 20,000 in any one year. Tonnage Dues, for some reason or other, are annexed by the Hankow Custom House. Transit Dues have almost disappeared since Chungking became a Treaty port.

(d.) Foreign Opium is practically unknown at Ichang. The Native Opium to be found in our tables is that which, whether produced in Yunnan, Kweichow, or Szechwan, is shipped at Chungking in chartered junks and transhipped here in steamers for distant markets. The very remarkable development that has taken place during the decade in this branch of trade has already been noticed. In the last Decennial Report the figures for the year 1891 were given as 399 piculs, and the writer described the increase, which, it is true, took place in one quarter, as "enormous." Ten years later the figures had risen to nearly 13,000 piculs, and in 1901 to over 16,000 piculs. Though we have no means of estimating the quantity of Opium sent out of the province previously to 1891—when it all passed through the Native Customs, chiefly by the so-called "overland" routes,—there is not the slightest doubt that the consumption of Szechwan Opium has made gigantic strides of late years, particularly in the Kwangtung and Fuhkien provinces, where it is probably used for mixing with the Foreign drug. Its cheapness has doubtless made its use so general, and the trade will assuredly still further expand, if it be not throttled by excessive taxation—of which there is some danger. Side by side with steamer shipments, there has been a steady stream of equal volume along the Yangtze route through the Native Customs, to which have to be added the very considerable quantities which find their way *vid* Hunan to Southern Kiangsi, while the land route *vid* Shih-nan (施南) to I-tu (宜都) and Shasi is by no means deserted. We shall probably be well within the mark if we put down the annual exportation of Opium from Szechwan, including a small proportion of Yunnan and Kweichow drug, at not less than 50,000 piculs.

The duty of taxing this valuable trade falls mainly on Ichang, and is pretty nearly equally divided, at present, between the Foreign Customs and the Native Opium Bureau. To the former comes only such Opium as is shipped from Ichang by steamer; the latter deals with a great deal that finds its way in Native craft to the coast and the central provinces and all that is consumed in Hupeh.

In accordance with the regulations issued by the Tsungli Yamén in 1891, which followed on a general reorganisation of the provincial Opium administrations, Szechwan and Yunnan Opium were subjected to an Export Duty of *Hk.Tā* 20—plus a Likin tax of *Hk.Tā* 4.60—at Chungking, and a Coast Trade Duty of *Hk.Tā* 40 payable at Ichang, where the drug is labelled and remains free from further tax throughout the Empire. In 1899 this Coast Trade Duty was raised, at the instance of the Hukwang Viceroy, to *Hk.Tā* 52 (30 per cent.), and again, in the latter part of 1901, to *Hk.Tā* 60 (20 per cent.), making a total tax of *Hk.Tā* 84.60 per picul from port of shipment to destination. The Hupeh Native offices were also bidden to increase their transit tax in the same proportion; but as these amounted to *Hk.Tā* 12 per picul only, becoming, first, *Hk.Tā* 16, and then *Hk.Tā* 18.40—and as the other riverine provinces, Hunan, Kiangsi, Anhwei, and Kiangsu, did not, as far as is known, increase their transit charges,—these small additions obviously left the Foreign Customs at an immense disadvantage as compared with the Native offices, whose aggregate Duties, even to the most distant markets, probably do not exceed *Tā* 50, and are always susceptible of modification in the form of “allowances,” when the interests of the office concerned and the duty of encouraging trade combine to demand liberality. It speaks volumes for the superiority of steam carriage—with which, perhaps, must be reckoned the facilities and accommodation given to shippers by the steamer companies—that merchants should have found it possible to continue steamer shipments, in the face of such a heavy handicap. These had suffered no diminution up to the end of 1901; but there are signs that the weight of the tax is beginning to tell, as it inevitably must, in the long run.

Opium consumed in the Hupeh province is subject to home taxes aggregating *Hk.Tā* 61.40 per picul. Heavy though this be, it is not heavy enough to make it profitable to ship Opium intended for Hupeh through the Foreign Customs.

The cultivation of the poppy in Western Hupeh is said to have steadily increased, and may be studied in the immediate neighbourhood of Ichang; but what the annual production is, it is impossible to ascertain. Ichang itself is said to be largely supplied from local sources. The average prices ruling at Ichang for Native Opium, Duty paid, at the close of 1901 were as follows:—

	<i>Hk.Tā</i>
Yunnan	360 per picul.
Szechwan	250
Kweichow	250
Local	300

For further information on this subject, the reader is referred to the Decennial Report, 1882-91.

It is the general opinion that opium-smoking in this district is increasing. Chinese have remarked to me on the universal tolerance now accorded to the practice. The opium-smoker has no longer any reason to attempt to conceal his pleasant habit, or to retire for its satisfaction to the *kuan* or divan—now no longer patronised by the well-to-do. Every respectable house now has its *fumoir*, and one is expected to take, as well as to offer, a few whiffs in the course

of an ordinary visit. Opium-smoking among the Chinese has ceased to be generally regarded as a vice, and, like tea-drinking in England, has definitely taken its place among the customs of the country.

(c.) Considerable as are the sums paid in the form of taxes at Ichang—probably amounting to little short of 5 million taels yearly,—banks do not exist here, all silver transactions, on any scale, being carried out by drafts on Hankow or Shasi. Little silver, therefore, is required or used at Ichang. The port, nevertheless, has its Kung Ku (公估), or Assay Office, concerning which full information will be found in the last Decennial Report.

Cash shops issuing *tiao* (= 1,000 cash) notes abound. They are started with little or no capital, and under no restrictions, apparently, and spring up, flourish, and fail without disturbing the money market to any great extent, their issue being small.

The dearth of copper cash has steadily increased during the decade, as will be seen from the following figures, giving the average number of cash obtainable each year in exchange for a Haikwan tael, side by side with the average sterling value of the latter:—

YEAR.	HAIKWAN TAEI EXCHANGE RATE.		YEAR.	HAIKWAN TAEI EXCHANGE RATE.	
	Copper Cash.	Sterling.		Copper Cash.	Sterling.
1892.....	1,575	4s. 4½d.	1897.....	1,250	2s. 11½d.
1893.....	1,600	3s. 11½d.	1898.....	1,275	2s. 10½d.
1894.....	1,575	3s. 2½d.	1899.....	1,368	3s. 0½d.
1895.....	1,526	3s. 3½d.	1900.....	1,330	3s. 1½d.
1896.....	1,316	3s. 4d.	1901.....	1,250	2s. 11½d.

It will be noticed that during the latter half of the decade there was a remarkably close relation between the copper cash and sterling rates. This being so, one would have expected to find that the prices of commodities generally, in terms of copper cash, had fallen during the decade; so far from this being the case, there has been a very considerable increase in the cash prices of commodities generally, i.e., copper cash have depreciated in purchasing power, notwithstanding their alleged scarcity. The figures given below show the prices ruling at Ichang of the five necessities of life, for the Chinese, at the commencement and close of the decade:—

	1892.	1901.
	Cash.	Cash.
Rice	Per picul 3,600	5,200
Salt	5,400	8,000
Oil (vegetable)	8,000	10,500
Coal	150	175
Firewood	220	290

It is estimated that during the 10 years under review there has been a permanent rise in the retail prices of raw cotton, cotton goods, fish, meat, and vegetables amounting to 25 per cent.; in that of silk piece goods, to 40 per cent.

Whatever be the causes—depreciation of silver, scarcity of copper cash, or general advance in the cost of living at the Treaty ports due to the spread of luxury,—there is no doubt that the actual conditions press very hardly on the wage-earning classes, less so, probably, on the agriculturalist and the dealer. The scarcity of copper cash, if it exists, should have been appreciably relieved by the issue of cash notes by the provincial government some two years ago: they continue to command a premium at Ichang.

(f) * * * * *

(g.) The population of the city and suburbs of Ichang in 1901 is returned as 39,800, showing no advance since the year 1891.

There are four British firms (all represented by Chinese agents) and one German firm at Ichang; the Japanese steamship company is represented by one of the British firms.

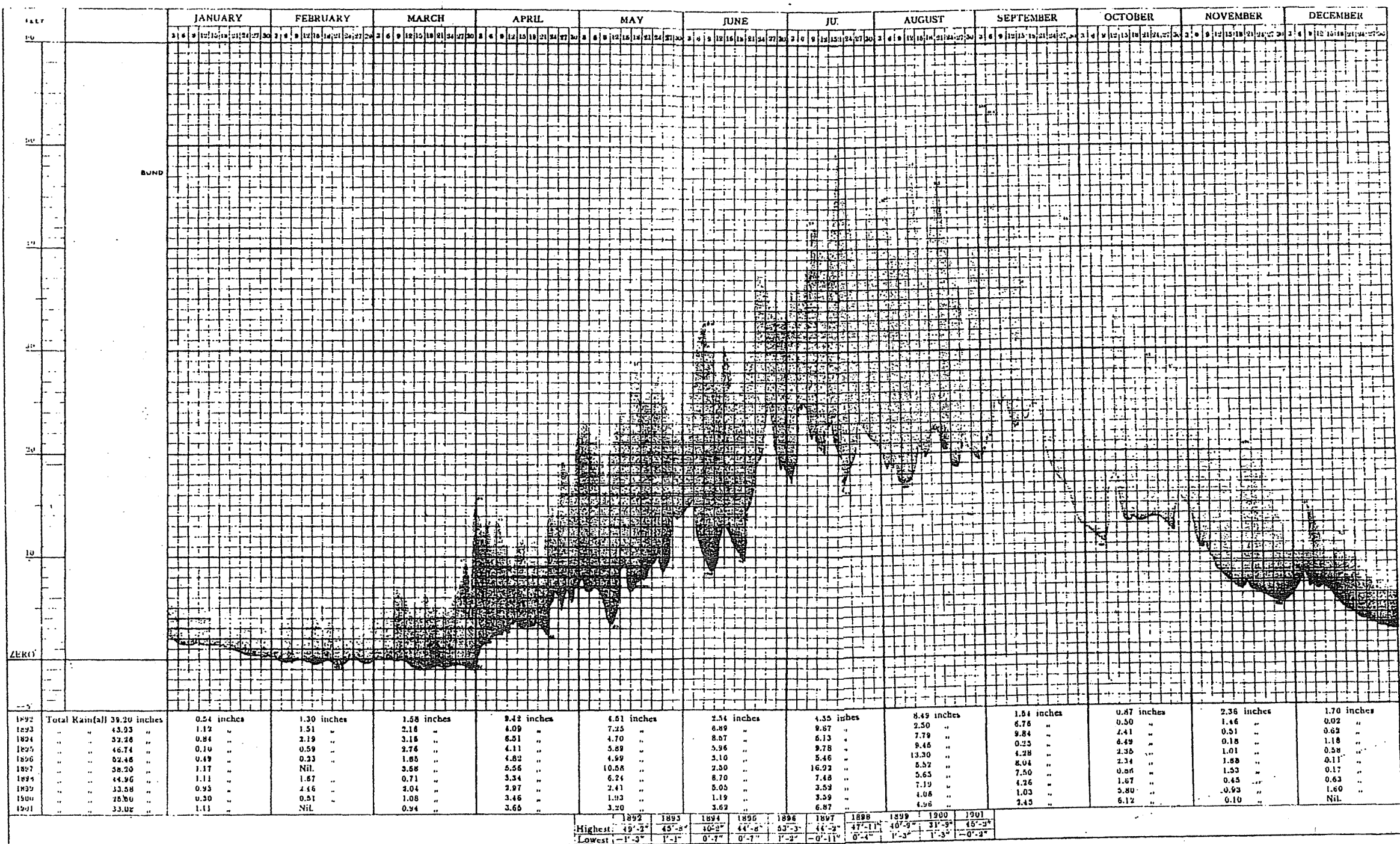
There have been no changes of importance among the Native firms, consisting chiefly of tax-paying or forwarding agencies. I have not been able to ascertain that there has been any appreciable change in the large boat population—trackers, mainly—which, earning their livelihood on the tow-path of the Upper Yangtze, make the suburb of Ichang known as Hsi-pa (西壩) their head-quarters.

(h.) Ichang is one of the few Treaty ports possessing no Foreign or international settlement or concession. It is understood that a British Concession, covering the space, approximately, now known as the Foreign quarter, and spoken of among the Chinese as the *tsu-chieh* (租界), was duly marked out, but at the last moment was declined by the British Government. Very considerable changes have taken place in this quarter during the past decade, as may be seen from a comparison of the plan of the port attached with that which accompanied the last Decennial Report.

In 1892 the British Consulate was completed, and in 1893 the imposing block of buildings forming the Bishop's residence and the church of the Franciscan Mission. In this latter year several godowns were built for transshipment cargo by the steamer companies, and the present Customs buildings were commenced—being completed the following year. In 1900 the premises of Messrs. MELCHERS & Co. and the Osaka Mercantile Steamship Company (Osaka Shosen Kaisha) were added, and the other steam shipping firms considerably extended their godown accommodation, which should now amply suffice for the requirements of the port for some years to come. The Standard Oil Company has also built a large godown, which has not yet been used, however. The whole frontage of the Foreign quarter has been solidly banded with faced stone, presenting, with its flights of stone steps of a height of some 47 feet, an appearance that contrasts very favourably with the quays of some other, and wealthier, river ports: this work has been done by the owners of property on the river bank.

The Ichang Improvements Committee, designed to discharge municipal duties in the so-called Foreign quarter and its neighbourhood, was started in 1894, and rapidly became a financial success through the sale of local postage stamps—to philatelists, mainly. Unfortunately, the establishment of the Chinese Imperial Post Office in 1896 knocked this source of revenue on the head, and the institution is now entirely dependent on the voluntary contributions of residents. There remains, however, a legacy from its palmy days, in the shape

DIAGRAM SHOWING THE RISE AND FALL OF THE RIVER YANGTZE AICHANG FOR THE YEARS 1892-1901.



Highest Water: 3rd September, 1894. Lowest Water: 17th March, 1892.
N.B.—The tinted portion represents the rise and fall between a maximum and minimum line for the whole period.
 The more prominent variations are marked with the year in which they occurred.

of a recreation ground with a Foreign cemetery adjoining; two solitary iron lamp-posts among the graves bear melancholy witness to the enterprise and opulence of former committees, as well as to the destructive tendencies of the Ichang *gamin*. Though our streets are still unlighted, the paths in the immediate neighbourhood of the Foreign residences have been greatly improved and broadened during the past few years.

One of the most striking features of Ichang, as approached from down river, is the vast structure which crowns a low hill on the left bank of the river, some $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles below the city, and which contains, in one vast high-walled compound, the new convent and chapel, hospital, school, orphanage, and college of the Franciscan Mission. This is approaching completion, and will be occupied in 1902, when the crowded convent premises in the Foreign quarter will be given up.

(i.) The difficulties of navigation on the Middle Yangtze—the section between Hankow and Ichang—have not diminished during the decade. Since the opening of Shasi and Yochow to Foreign trade, however, the Ichang district has become restricted, and the only serious obstruction in its waters on this section of the river is that caused by the patch known as the I-tu Rocks. The channel here is a shallow one at low water, liable to shift, apparently, while the water is falling, but, like other channels in the Yangtze, remaining constant when the water has reached its low level.

On the Upper Yangtze—the section above Ichang—the many difficulties and dangers already existing were increased by a new and formidable rapid, caused by a land-slide on a large scale at Pan-t'o (盤沱), about 25 li below the city of Yun-yang (雲陽). The following account of the occurrence, extracted from a report compiled by Mr. WOODRUFF, Commissioner of Customs at Ichang at the time of the occurrence, will be found interesting:—

"In the night of 29th–30th September 1896, after warning noises that had caused the people near to leave the place, there was a landslip at a part of the left bank where there is a height of some 1,500 feet, quite steep above its 300 feet of slope of soil-covered talus that reached to the river's edge. The soil is sand and clay; the rocks are sandstone or limestone; the slope was terraced and in cultivation. The fall was gradual and, it is believed, caused no loss of life. A part of the steep face fell perpendicularly, its pressure forcing the shore below it outward into the river. Great boulders were rolled or pushed across almost the whole of the bed of the north channel, now narrowed by this new headland—from 300 or 400 yards—to a width of only 80 or 100 yards. Through this narrowed channel, over the submerged boulders, the water now rushes with great force and disturbance; while the current along the left bank, deflected by the new headland into the mid-current, causes dangerous whirlpools below this new rapid."

This rapid, known as the Hsing-lung-t'an (興隆灘), is said to have lost some of its terrors in the course of the last two years, but is still one of the most formidable rapids of the Upper Yangtze during the low-water season, when the traffic is heaviest.

(j.) Arrangements were made at the close of the year 1901 to buoy one of the rocks forming the I-tu patch.

In 1898 an attempt was made to remove some of the rocks impeding navigation at the Hsing-lung rapid by means of dynamite; the operations, undertaken by the Harbour Department of the Customs, were only partially successful.

(k.) It is pleasant to be able to record that Ichang appears to have completely purged itself, in the course of the decade, of its "unenviable notoriety" for anti-Foreign riots spoken of in the last Decennial Report. I know no part of China where the Foreigner, at present, meets with more civility than in the country about Ichang—where the very buffalo-boys greet him respectfully. Even in the town and its suburbs, which has its rowdies and loafers like other towns, terms of abuse are rarely, if ever, heard. To what softening influences this change is due, it is difficult to say; but it appears to have been of gradual growth.

In December 1892 a mob, composed chiefly of students assembled for the prefectural examination, broke into the temple used as Customs premises, but were fortunately driven out by the staff before any serious damage was done. Further mischief on the part of the large crowds assembled was prevented by the prompt action of the Native officials and the landing of a party from H.B.M.S. *Esk*. In 1893, as chronicled in the Trade Report for that year, the port was "happily exempt from riots and disturbances of any kind." In 1895, however, the accidental shooting of a Chinese official, during some athletic sports held by the Foreign community, caused another disturbance, in the course of which the residence of the Commissioner of Customs was attacked and some damage done. On this occasion, too, the very prompt measures taken by the local military authorities prevented a very serious riot. The sports in question, got up by the officers and crew of H.B.M.S. *Esk*, included rifle shooting at a range on the ground—a large vacant plot belonging to the American Mission; and it was while crossing this ground, after witnessing some of the sports, that the unfortunate official—a Customs deputy, by name SUN T'ING-YÜEH (孫廷樾)—was shot through the head by a stray bullet, fired, it appeared, by a Chinese cook employed on the *Esk*. The incensed crowd, imagining that the deputy, well known and popular, had been shot by a Foreigner, followed the Foreigners from the ground with stones and curses and assaulted the first dwelling they reached.

In the autumn of 1896, after prolonged drought, the river rose in flood till it reached the unusual height of 53 feet 3 inches above zero, causing considerable damage to the town and to the crops as well. "Drought and disastrous floods," to quote the Trade Report for 1897, "were followed by famine and an epidemic disease which carried off thousands in the spring of 1897. The districts of Fêng-chieh (奉節), Ta-ning (大甯), and Wu-shan (巫山), in the K'uei-fu prefecture, and Pa-tung (巴東) in the Ichang prefecture, and the department of Shih-nan (施南), suffered the most severely. Relief measures were, however, promptly concerted, and the local officials, with praiseworthy zeal, hastened forward supplies to the afflicted districts. Rice and dried potato chips were imported from down river—principally Wuhu and Hankow—to the extent of 235,232 piculs and 10,191 piculs respectively. Immense difficulties were encountered in getting the rice sent forward, as, owing to the mountainous nature of the country and the absence of roads, the transport by land was slow and laborious, and had ultimately to be abandoned and junks employed to carry the famine rice, etc., to such points above Ichang as would admit of an easier transport inland. Owing, however, to an insufficiency of Native junks, the Ch'en-wu Chu (賑務局), 'Famine Relief Office,' had to seek the aid of the local shipping hong, who consented to give up three-tenths of the carrying capacity of their chartered junks for the carriage of famine-relief rice."

Among the calamities that have visited the port must be counted the wreck of the German s.s. *Suihsiang*, already referred to in this Report. This vessel, specially built for the navigation of the Upper Yangtze rapids, left Ichang, on her first trip, on the morning of the 27th December 1900, and was totally wrecked at 1 o'clock in the afternoon of the same day at the K'ung-ling (腔齡) rapid, a dangerous spot during the low-water season. The vessel appears to have had her bow caught by the stream, to have struck a rock, drifted with anchors down for about a mile and a quarter down stream, and finally sunk in mid-stream in about 21 fathoms. Of the numerous Foreigners on board, Captain BREITAG, in command of the vessel, who appears to have generously parted with his life-belt, was the only one drowned; of the Chinese, 15 are said to have perished. Those saved owe their lives mainly to the promptitude and skill of the Chinese life-boats stationed on the spot. Captain BREITAG's body was recovered in May 1901 by Chinese, and brought to Ichang for burial.

The shock of the outbreak in the North, that should have convulsed the whole Empire during 1900, was felt, it appears, here in some degree; but I cannot ascertain that there was danger to the port itself at any time. Chinese disaffection in the Ch'ang-yang (長陽) and Ch'ang-lo (長樂) districts, not far from Ichang—stimulated, no doubt, by the echoes of brave deeds elsewhere,—broke into small insurrections of unarmed peasants, which for a moment made some headway and caused some alarm at Ichang, where the wildest rumours were rife. The local civil and military officials, however, asserted from the first their perfect competence to quell disorder and their determination to do so, and to protect the lives of Foreigners, to whom they showed their goodwill in every possible way during the crisis.

(l.) The port of Ichang, being on the high-road to Szechwan as well as the starting-point for visitors to the Yangtze Gorges, is liable to frequent visits from distinguished civil, naval, and military officers (too numerous to mention individually), on their way to and from their posts, and from tourists and sightseers from all parts of the globe. The number of the latter has increased considerably during the decade.

(m.) to (o.) These sections will, no doubt, be exhaustively treated in the Hankow Report, and to deal with them here would be mere repetition. It may be mentioned, however, that the standard of education in the poor, mountainous districts of Western Hupeh is not a high one—the wonder is that it is not much lower,—and the number of females who can read or write is proportionately small.

(p.) A full description of Ichang—its physical features, its products, and its industries—is to be found in the last Decennial Report. To the information there given concerning mining, I may add that copper ore has been worked recently by Native methods in the Chien-shih (建始) district. I understand the provincial authorities have been petitioned to authorise the formation of a syndicate to work this mine with Foreign machinery.

The following interesting note on the flora of Western Hupeh has been kindly contributed by Mr. E. H. WILSON, of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, who has been recently engaged in a prolonged study of the district:—

"Previously to 1885 practically nothing was known concerning the flora of Western Hupeh, although at least four persons had collected plants in the Ichang neighbourhood: DAVID,

1868; MARIES, 1879; WATTERS, 1880; DELAVAY, 1882. Their collections, however, were very meagre, and gave no indication of the richness and variety of the flora as we now know it, and which it was left to Dr. AUGUSTINE HENRY, of the Imperial Maritime Customs, to demonstrate. In 1885 this gentleman began collecting and drying specimens, with the object of identifying the Chinese names of economic plants and vegetable products with their scientific appellations. His first collection was sent to Kew Gardens in the spring of 1886, and proved so rich and interesting that he was urged to continue the exploration of the district. In 1889 Dr. HENRY published, through the China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, a list of 555 plants from Hupeh, determined at Kew, with the Chinese names in colloquial use at Ichang. Parenthetically, it may be mentioned that the Chinese names in use in this note are drawn from this source. In 1889 Dr. HENRY left Ichang; but not before he had amassed an enormous collection of dried plants, and laid all students of the Chinese flora under deep and lasting obligations. His Hupeh collection is estimated to contain 500 new species and 25 new genera. These figures are enormous, and say much for the enthusiasm, energy, and untiring devotion of the collector.

"Dr. HENRY's researches prove the flora of Western Hupeh to be undoubtedly one of the richest and most remarkable in the world. It probably exceeds 5,000 species, and includes sub-tropical, temperate, and Alpine forms, though temperate forms predominate.

"The flora of the river valley and of the flat plain east of the 112th meridian of longitude may be roughly described as sub-tropical. West of the 112th meridian the country becomes very mountainous. The city of Ichang is only 129 feet above sea-level, but no great distance north and south of it high altitudes are found. The pyramidal hills so characteristic of the Ichang neighbourhood in no case exceed 2,000 feet; but three days to the south-east is a well-defined range upwards of 6,500 feet in height, and west and south-west of this the country is deeply cut up. North of Ichang the country is even more mountainous than the south. Eight days from Ichang, running almost due east and west, we have the Chung-t'iao-shan (中條山) range, forming the watershed of the Han and Yangtze Rivers. This range near the Szechwan boundary exceeds 10,000 feet in height; the Shên-nung-chia (神農架) mountain, which is one of the highest points, and to which much legendary lore is attached by the Chinese, approaches 11,000 feet.

"It is only natural that in such a high country, with such variety in altitude, climate, and soil, we should find a rich and varied flora; but the richness surpasses the dreams of the most sanguine. In addition to the many plants peculiar to this province and those common to other parts of China, to be noticed later, we also find an interesting admixture of Himalayan and European plants. The former are very abundant in the mountains above 3,000 feet, the following being amongst the commonest of our mountain plants:—

" <i>Clematis montana</i> .	" <i>Rosa sericea</i> .
<i>Coriaria nepalensis</i> .	<i>Cotoneaster microphylla</i> .
<i>Berberis wallichiana</i> .	<i>Hydrangea aspera</i> .
<i>Berberis nepalensis</i> .	<i>Dichroa febrifuga</i> .
<i>Benthamia fragifera</i> .	<i>Corylus ferox</i> .
<i>Spiræa sorbifolia</i> .	<i>Betula utilis</i> .

"European plants are not so common, and are nearly all relegated to the higher altitudes; amongst others, we find the following:—

" <i>Viburnum opulus</i> (guelder rose).	" <i>Populus nigra</i> (black poplar).
<i>Anemone pulsatilla</i> (pasque flower).	<i>Polemonium caeruleum</i> (Jacob's ladder).
<i>Papaver alpinum</i> (Alpine poppy).	<i>Pyrus aucuparia</i> (ash or rowan tree).
<i>Agrimonia eupatoria</i> (agrimony).	<i>Pyrus aria</i> (bean tree).
<i>Potentilla anserina</i> (silver-weed).	<i>Prunus padus</i> (bird cherry).
<i>Populus tremula</i> (common poplar).	<i>Osmunda regalis</i> (royal fern).

"As before remarked, the flora of the river valley is more or less sub-tropical, the following plants being very characteristic:—

" <i>Melia azedarach</i> .	" <i>Lagerstroemia indica</i> (Cape myrtle).
<i>Bambusa mitis</i> .	<i>Toddalia aculeata</i> .
<i>Trachycarpus excelsus</i> (fan palm).	<i>Hibiscus syriacus</i> .
<i>Hibiscus mutabilis</i> .	<i>Pinus sinensis</i> .
<i>Cesalpinia sepiaria</i> .	

"The *hung-kuo-shu* (紅菓樹), which is popularly supposed to occur only in Szechwan, is found near the Yeh-t'an rapid, in Hupeh; it is a species of banyan, and is referred to the common Indian plant *Ficus infectoria*.

"Ichang itself is the home of two most interesting plants, namely, the type of the Chinese primula and of the common chrysanthemum. Everybody is familiar with the gorgeous varieties of both these plants, particularly the latter, so largely cultivated in all parts of the world; but it is only recently that we have become acquainted with the types and their home. *Primula sinensis* is very common on the perpendicular limestone cliffs in the Ichang gorge and the lovely San-yu-tung glen, where it was first discovered by Mr. T. WATTERS, of the British Consular Service, in 1879. Père DELAVAY rediscovered it in the same locality in 1882. This plant is a charming sight from December to March, when it is covered with its lovely soft, pink blossoms. *Chrysanthemum sinense*, the original parent of all the gorgeous coloured chrysanthemums of our gardens, is a very common plant in the hedgerows and ditches around Ichang, where it was first discovered by Dr. HENRY. In connexion with this, there is no history of when or how the Chinese began the cultivation of such plants, and it is remarkable how few specimens of really wild forms of many cultivated Chinese decorative plants there are.

"Another curious fact, and one that has peculiar relation to the flora of this neighbourhood, is the number of plants called japonica which are only Japanese in cultivation, and are really Chinese in origin. These plants are all favourite garden plants with the Japanese, and it is extremely probable that all have been introduced into Japan from China. These plants reached Europe from Japan, and were erroneously supposed to be natives of that country—hence the specific name 'japonica.' The following well-known plants are examples:—

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|------------------------|--|
| "Iris japonica. | "Fatsia papyrifera. |
| Chimonanthus fragrans. | Viburnum furcatum. |
| Anemone japonica. | Senecio japonica. |
| Aucuba japonica. | Spiraea japonica. |
| Eriobotrya japonica. | Petasites japonica. |
| Lonicera japonica. | Corylopsis spicata. |
| Styrax japonicum. | Helwingia rusciflora. |
| Kerria japonica. | Acer palmatum (the type of all the so-called Japanese maples). |
| Sophora japonica. | |

"Many of the above occur in the glens off the gorges, others on the higher mountains; but all are very common plants, and there is not a shadow of doubt about their being truly indigenous to the province.

"The following is a list, which does not claim to be thoroughly representative, however, of the more ornamental plants of the Hupeh flora:—

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|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| "Vitex negundo. | "Jasminum floridum. |
| Ilex cornuta. | Abelia parvifolia. |
| Crataegus pyracantha. | Eupatorium japonicum. |
| Sophora viciifolia. | Rhus cotinus. |
| Polygala Mariesii. | Teucrium albo-rubrum. |
| Nandina domestica. | Corydalis thalictrifolia. |
| Lilium Brownii. | Rhus semialata. |
| Paulownia imperialis. | Clematis meyeniana. |
| Azalea indica. | Bauhinia glauca. |
| Funkia subcordata. | Rosa laevigata. |
| Loropetalum chinense. | Clematis Henryi. |
| Wistaria sinensis. | Celastrus variabilis. |
| Lilium Henryi. | Euonymus alatus. |
| Lycoris aurea. | Rhamnus davuricus. |
| Clerodendron trichotomum. | Boltonia indica. |
| Cupressus funebris. | Deutzia crenata. |
| Photinia serrulata. | Begonia Henryi. |
| Crataegus cuneata. | Camellia Grijisii. |
| Primula obconica. | Cassia mimosoides. |
| Lycoris radiata. | Cornus paucinervis. |
| Rosa moschata. | Myricaria germanica. |
| Cudrania triloba. | Pyrus cathayensis. |
| Mussaenda pubescens. | Mezoneurum sinense. |
| Jasminum sinense. | Lespedeza bicolor. |
| Crataegus pinnatifida. | Vitis heterophylla. |
| Abelia chinensis. | |

"Trees, though few in number, are rich in species; amongst others, we have:—

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| "Acer oblongum. | "Acanthapanea ricinifolium. |
| Quercus chinensis. | Quercus sclerophylla. |
| Sophora Kronei. | Platycarya strobilacea. |
| Celtis chinensis. | Liquidambar formosana. |
| Ligustrum lucidum. | Cedrela sinensis. |
| Ulmus parvifolia. | Pistachia chinensis. |
| Salix babylonica. | Sterculia platanifolia. |
| Thuja orientalis. | Ginkgo biloba. |
| Pterocarya stenoptera. | Dalbergia hupeana. |
| Xylocarpus racemosum. | Gleditsia sinensis. |
| Ailanthus glandulosa. | |

"A characteristic plant on the low hills around Ichang is *Heteropogon hirtus*, the 'spear grass' of the Foreign sportsman. The seeds of this annoying grass are barbed, and drill their way through clothing into the flesh, from whence they are by no means easily extracted. The power of penetration these barbed seeds possess is truly remarkable. Ordinary cloth, such as serge, flannel, or even khaki, is useless against them—they will even penetrate through the leather tongue of a shooting boot; stout duck, drill, or canvas, starched and glazed, are the only cloth materials that will resist them. This spear grass, the *huang-ts'ao* (黄草) of the Chinese, is largely used for thatching houses, being preferred to straw. *Anthisteria ciliata* (*pao-tsi-ts'ao*) is another spear grass, more common on the mountains above 3,000 feet.

"Mention must not be omitted of a plant which is one of the lions of Ichang, known locally to Foreigners as the 'big creeper.' It is really a gigantic climber, covering several trees and a grove of bamboos: its main trunk is over 2 feet in diameter. Its nearly black, wistaria-like flowers are borne on the old stems; these are followed by a crop of giant, bean-like pods, varying from 1½ to 3 feet in length and covered by brown, hispid hairs. It is the *Mucuna sempervirens* of botanists; the Chinese call it *niu-ma-t'eng* (牛馬藤), amongst other names.

"Quitting the immediate neighbourhood of Ichang for the mountains of 2,000 to 4,000 feet, we find many other interesting trees, shrubs, and herbs. Foremost amongst these are:—

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| "Cercis chinensis. | "Cinnamomum camphora. |
| Diervilla versicolor. | Litsea cupularis. |
| Castanea vulgaris. | Halenia floribunda. |
| Hedera Helix. | Patrinia villosa. |
| Cunninghamia sinensis. | Lindera tzu-mu. |
| Clematis heracleaefolia. | Machilus Thunbergii. |
| Halesia hispida. | Spiraea dasyantha. |
| Desmodium floribundum. | Marlea begoniaefolia. |
| Spiraea Blumei. | Cornus macrophylla. |
| Rubus rosaeifolius. | Betula pyrifolia. |
| Machilus Faberi. | |

"Above this altitude, up to 7,000 feet, are to be found woods composed of the familiar trees of our own woodlands: oak, birch, beech, ash, hazel, chestnut, willow, etc.; together with magnolia, rhododendron, viburnum, rubus, honeysuckle, and herbs of all kinds running riot in numerous species. These woods are the home of such ornithological treasures as the Reeves, golden, and other pheasants; wild pig, leopard, and tiger also find shelter there.

"On the slopes of the higher mountains—7,000 to 10,000 feet—remains of forests are met with. These remnants consist either of mixed trees (*i.e.*, oak, birch, hazel, poplar, beech, etc.) or solely of Coniferae (*i.e.*, pine, fir, and spruce); most frequently it is the latter. Of these conifers, many very fine specimens occur, ranging from 100 to 150 feet in height, 18 to 30 feet in girth, and straight as an arrow. To the ordinary person, it is difficult to recognise them as natives of China—they seem more like aliens from North-western America, to whose mighty offspring they are, indeed, near relations. The presence of such an unlooked-for phenomenon as these gigantic trees in Central China is readily explained: the scant population of these mountains have no means of transporting the timber. It is impossible to float them down the roaring mountain torrents, and to carry them on men's backs—the only alternative—is equally impossible. Hence, they remain relics of a departed age, reminding us of the noble forests which covered the mountain ranges before the destructive, utilitarian Chinese overran the country.

"Without any reference to the economic plants of the province, any note on the flora would be sadly deficient; these are both many and varied, but it is not possible to do them more than scant justice here.

"The agricultural products are similar to those of other parts of China, and call for no special remarks. However, it may be of interest to note the rapid spread of the culture of the Foreign potato, introduced by the Roman Catholic fathers. It is largely grown in all the mountainous parts of the province, and on the higher parts of the Chung-tiao range it forms the staple food of the people. The Chinese, unfortunately for them, are ignorant of the proper methods of cultivating the potato: they plant them almost as thickly as they do peas, and rarely earth them up. Even when they do attempt this latter process, they only scratch a handful or so of soil to each plant, which is absolutely useless.

"Another striking feature is the extended culture of the opium poppy. This is grown as a winter crop in all parts of Western Hupeh, and its culture is attempted in all sorts of impossible situations: one sees it in the month of May in full flower in the valleys, whilst high up on the mountain slopes it is only 4 to 6 inches high. The variety with white flowers is considered the most valuable.

"Tea is grown in small quantities in several parts of the province, and, from the occasional plants one frequently meets with in travelling, it is evident that the tea plant was rather extensively cultivated in former times. The tea known to buyers and tea-tasters as 'Ichang tea' is grown in the Ho-feng (鶴峰) district. It is produced in small quantities, but the quality is regarded by some as being little inferior to Ningchow tea. The leaves of a great variety of

plants are used by the country-people as a substitute for tea, the coolie class in Ichang preferring them to the real article. The following plants are the principal substitutes used:—

"Pyrus spectabilis.	"Spiraea Blumei.
Pyrus baccata.	Spiraea Henryi.
Crataegus pyracantha.	Spiraea dasyantha.

"Rhus vernicifera—varnish tree (漆樹)—is abundant in all districts above 2,500 feet. The bulk of the exported article is produced in the Shih-nan (施南) prefecture, and reaches the Yangtze partly by way of I-tu (宜都), and partly by way of a creek which falls into the Yangtze several li below K'uei-chou-fu (夔州府).

"Rhus semialata (漆樹) is very common up to 3,000 feet altitude.

"Aleurites cordata (桐子樹) is abundant in the valleys and on the low hills, but it is not found above 2,000 feet. From the seeds is prepared the tung-yu (桐油), the 'wood oil' of Foreigners, so largely used for oiling the Native boats.

"The tallow tree—Sapium sebiferum (木子樹)—is very common up to 3,000 feet. Its white seeds, exposed by the dehiscence of the three-valved capsule, and its richly coloured leaves during the autumn months, make it very conspicuous.

"Hemp—Cannabis sativa (罌麻)—is cultivated in mountainous districts, for the oil from the seed, which has the property of not congealing in the coldest weather, and is used for lighting. The fibre from it, which is not much used, is locally known as kan-pao-pi (乾剝皮), and is used for making string. The hemp exported from the Shih-nan prefecture is, in all probability, the product of Abutilon Avicennae (青麻, or 羅麻, or 苧麻).

"Boehmeria nivea—the grasscloth plant (苧麻)—occurs in a wild state in the glens and is also cultivated; the cultivated kind is often termed here hsien-ma (綠麻).

"The ko-téng (葛藤)—Pueraria thunbergiana—is very common on the hills around Ichang, but apparently no cloth is made here. From the roots, an arrowroot-like preparation is extracted; from the finer twigs, string and gun fuses (火繩) are made.

"Polygonum tinctorium is very largely cultivated, in the flat districts around Shasi, for making indigo.

"Platycorya strobilacea (檳香樹) is a small tree, very common on the hills, which produces cones used locally for dyeing.

"The bark of Rhamnus dahuricus (涼藥) is used for making a green dye.

"Many valuable medicines are produced in Hupeh, particularly in the Shih-nan prefecture and in Fang (房) and Hsing-shan (興山) districts. Rhubarb (大黃)—Rheum officinale—occurs in the wild state on the Chung-tiao range, at an altitude of 7,500 to 9,000 feet, but is by no means plentiful. It is cultivated in the Pa-tung district.

"Coptis chinensis (水連或黃連) is both wild and cultivated in the higher mountains.

"Codonopsis tong-shén, the dried roots of which are known as tang-shén (黨參), is abundant; so also is the pei-mu (貝母). In Hupeh this name is applied to the dried pseudo-bulbs of a small orchid—Pleione, *sp. nov.*; in other parts of China, particularly Szechwan, the name is supposed to be applied to the bulbs of a species of Fritillaria.

"Magnolia hypoleuca (厚樸) is commonly cultivated, for the sake of its bark and flowers.

"*Eucommia ulmoides* (杜仲): this is a very remarkable tree, having the leaves and fruit like an elm, but in reality allied to the magnolia. This tree is very commonly cultivated for its bark, which is a most valuable Chinese drug, often selling at a tael a catty. When a piece of the bark is broken in two, and the ends drawn out, a silky fibre is displayed; these silky fibres contain a substance allied to caoutchouc.

"The province is poorly off for timber, the bulk being imported from Hunan and Szechwan. The timber imported from Hunan is principally that of the *shan-shu* (杉樹)—*Cunninghamia sinensis*; that from Szechwan, *nan-mu* (楠木) and *tsü-mu* (紫木). The name *nan-mu* is loosely applied to the wood of several species of *Lindera* and *Machilus*; *tsü-mu* is the wood of *Lindera tzu-mu*. Both these timbers occur in Hupeh, but are not plentiful. They are hard and valuable woods, used chiefly for making furniture and coffins.

"Large woods of the *sung-shu* (松樹)—*Pinus sinensis*—and of the *pai-shu* (柏樹)—*Cupressus funebris*—occur on the precipitous mountain sides, some four days north of Ichang. These are felled, made into rafts, and floated down a small river which falls into the Yangtze 3 miles west of Ichang. The *sung-shu* is largely planted, for use as firewood, on the hills around.

"*Cinnamomum camphora*—*chang-shu* (樟樹)—is a common tree. The wood is valued for making furniture; it is very fragrant.

"*Quercus glauca* (槲樹) produces a very hard wood, used for making small pulleys, etc., for junks.

"*Liquidambar formosana* (楓香樹) is fairly common, and is used in Hankow for making tea-chests.

"*Dalbergia hupehiana* (檀樹) yields a tough, hard wood, of a dark colour, employed to make the larger pulleys and blocks used on junks and the rammers for oil presses.

"*Pistachia chinensis* (黃連牙樹) also yields a tough, hard wood, of a dark colour; it is used for making rudder-posts for junks. This wood is very valuable—a good rudder-post, with a natural fork, costing 15,000 to 20,000 cash (about 7½ 18) in Chungking, which is the market for them. The young shoots of this tree and also of *Cedula sinensis* are eaten by the Natives.

"*Ehretia ovalifolia* (小粗糠樹) is a small tree with a strong, light wood, used for making carrying-poles, etc.

"*Populus villosa* (白楊樹) is a very common tree from 1,500 to 3,000 feet, and yields a wood valued for building purposes, furniture, and carving.

"The above are the principal timber-producing trees of the province, but on the high mountains, awaiting improved methods of transport, is an enormous quantity of valuable timber, such as birch, beech, hazel, fir, spruce, and oak."

Concerning the climate of Ichang, Dr. KIRK, Customs Medical Attendant, writes as follows:—

"The climate of Ichang, like that of most of the other ports on the Yangtze, is extremely hot during one or two months, but tolerably agreeable during the rest of the year. Throughout the year, the thermometer ranges from a few degrees below freezing-point in winter to 98°-100° F. in the shade in summer. The hot season commences about the beginning of July and lasts, usually, until late in autumn. During this period the thermometer, at times, indicates as high as 104°-112°; but these high temperatures only last a few hours, and 88°-95° may be looked

upon as the ordinary summer heat. An up-river breeze, which blows almost daily throughout the summer, starting any time between 8 o'clock and noon and lasting until sundown, much mitigates the intensity of the summer heat. Occasionally, however, there is a succession of days and nights without a breath of wind, and at such times the radiation from the earth's surface after sunset renders the nights very close and oppressive. The winter is not, as a rule, severe, and only occasionally does the thermometer register below freezing-point. Snow is of rare occurrence. In spring the weather is variable in character, warm spells alternating with days of wintry coldness. March and April are usually wet months. The autumn is the finest and most healthful season in the whole year: the mornings and evenings are cool, and there are fewer of those sudden changes of temperature so common in the spring. In November and December the weather is usually dry, clear, and relatively bracing.

"*Climate in Relation to Health.*—For a healthy adult, with a sound constitution, living in a properly built, well-ventilated house, and exercising ordinary common-sense precautions in guarding against the vicissitudes of climate, there are few ports in China where he is less likely to contract disease. For infants and young children, however, the circumstances are not so favourable, particularly during the summer months, and constant care in diet and clothing is necessary to secure against injury to health. Comparatively few deaths from disease contracted locally have occurred in the adult European population during the past 10 years.

"*Climate in Relation to Disease.*—The climate of this district is not particularly unfavourable to the successful treatment of any class of disease, and most diseases are as likely to have a favourable termination here as elsewhere in China. Epidemics are of rare occurrence, and this notwithstanding the total absence of any attempt on the part of the Natives at sanitation. Drainage, where attempted, is of the rudest and most primitive nature; most of the ground built upon is saturated with sewerage; and in the alleyways and side streets putrefying animal and vegetable matter may be seen in unstinted abundance. Under these circumstances, the wonder is that epidemic disease, in one form or other, is not a constant factor.

"Amongst the Native population the diseases most prevalent are:—

" Malaria.	" Rheumatism.
Skin diseases.	Neuralgia.
Intestinal worms.	Hepatic congestion.
Diarrhoea.	Dyspepsia.
Dysentery.	Eye affections.
Tumours.	Anæmia.
Phthisis.	Scarlet fever.
Small-pox.	Measles.
Chicken-pox.	Whooping-cough.

"Amongst Foreigners the commoner ailments are:—

" Malaria.	" Rheumatism.
Diarrhoea.	Scarlet fever.
Dysentery.	Measles.
Gastro-intestinal catarrh.	Bronchial catarrh.
Hepatic congestion.	

"Amongst the Natives a few cases of cholera are reported every year, and during the winter months small-pox exists sporadically. The last serious outbreak of cholera occurred in 1883, when its most noteworthy feature was the high rate of mortality. This epidemic the Natives ascribed to some irregularity in the seasons and scarcity of food.

"*Malarial Diseases.*—The country in the immediate neighbourhood having abundantly all the acknowledged factors necessary to the development of the bacillus malarie, it is not surprising that these diseases are very prevalent. Remittent is the more common type, intermittent occurring as quotidian and tertian. The majority of cases occur in the spring and autumn; no season, however, is free, some occurring in the clear, cold weather of winter.

"Amongst the Natives diarrhoea and dysentery are usually of a mild nature, while liver affections—as congestion, inflammation, and abscess,—so fatal to Europeans living in the East, are rarely met with amongst them. A comparatively large number of catarrhal conditions of the bowel and dysentery occur amongst the European residents, and there is also an unusually high per-centage of cases of hepatic disease, the prevalence of both these affections being no doubt due to some local climatic influence.

"Venereal diseases are very common. Gonorrhoea seems as inevitable as ague, and syphilis proper is rife in all degrees of virulence.

"Diphtheria is rare, yet such diseases as mumps and whooping-cough are common enough.

"Skin diseases are much in evidence, those of a parasitic nature being in the ascendant."

The following table gives the barometer, thermometer, and rainfall for Ichang, averaged for the 10 years ended 1901:—

MONTH.	BAROMETER.		THERMOMETER.		RAINFALL.
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	
1892-1901.	Inches.	Inches.	° F.	° F.	Inches.
January	30.516	29.813	60.65	27.60	0.77
February	30.507	29.753	69.60	29.25	1.05
March	30.419	29.646	79.30	33.50	2.02
April	30.223	29.454	92.55	44.50	4.78
May	30.067	29.468	95.95	53.60	5.17
June	29.852	29.374	100.75	63.60	4.81
July	29.703	29.338	104.60	69.80	7.27
August	29.847	29.387	106.00	68.30	6.89
September	30.401	29.647	97.30	59.95	4.59
October	30.293	29.827	87.55	50.17	2.59
November	30.456	29.796	80.05	37.65	1.04
December	30.568	29.791	69.00	29.45	0.66
AVERAGE DURING DECENNARY....	30.237	29.607	95.27	47.24	Month = 3.47 in. Year = 41.64 in.

(q.) The varieties of junks which frequent Ichang are fully described in the last Decennial Report. It is, at present, impossible to estimate at all accurately the number of vessels actually engaged in the traffic, but the following figures will give some idea of its dimensions.

Not counting small craft of the sampan type, there are about 8,000 entries and 7,000 clearances yearly between Ichang and the Szechwan ports, which may, perhaps, be estimated as having an average capacity of 25 tons each. Between Ichang and the middle and lower river ports and Hunan, there are about 7,000 entries and 6,000 clearances yearly, averaging, probably, 20 tons each. On this estimate, the Upper Yangtze traffic to and from Ichang employs 375,000 tons yearly, and the Ichang down-river traffic 260,000 tons—the difference approximately representing the steamer share; for Ichang is at present only a terminus for the chartered junks which ply in connexion with the steamers. Quite six-tenths, if not more, of the downward, independent junks, amenable to Native Customs control, continue, as of old, to pursue their voyage to Shasi or Hankow with original cargo, the remainder either landing their cargoes or transshipping them into smaller craft for Hunan ports. Of upward junks, mainly from Shasi, the proportion of through-bound vessels is somewhat larger, probably.

Junk freights ruling in 1901 between Ichang and Chungking were as follows, varying with the season:—

Cotton yarn, per $\frac{1}{2}$ bale 6,800 to 7,800 cash (\$8.10 to \$9.36).

Medicines and sundries, per picul . . 1,800 „ 2,400 „ (\$2.16 „ \$2.88).

Insurance rates to Chungking in 1895 were quoted by the Chungking Transport Company at from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 8 per cent., w.a., varying with the nature of the goods and the season; but have recently been reduced by the same company to an average of $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 per cent., w.a., according to season. Neither junk-owners nor shippers have, so far, adopted any system of insurance.

A large junk, of about 100 tons register, will make one trip to and fro yearly between Ichang and Chungking. Her running expenses will be $\text{T}2,000$ or more; her gross freight, $\text{T}3,000$; and her profit, therefore, $\text{T}1,000$, not counting interest on junk-owner's capital. Of this profit, $\text{T}600$ will be made on the up journey and the rest on the down journey. A medium-sized cargo junk, of about 50 tons register, will make two trips to and fro yearly. Her expenses will be about $\text{T}600$ for each run; her gross freight, about $\text{T}900$. She will thus make a yearly profit of $\text{T}600$, if all goes well, on an invested capital probably not exceeding $\text{T}400$.

If the profits are large, however, the risks are great, both to life and property. It will be interesting to see what has been done by officials and people to minimise these, as shown in the following note on the "red boat" service, for which I am indebted to the researches of Mr. Assistant STEPHENSON-JELLIE and the Likin Collectorate Writer LI P'ENG-LU (李彭祿):—

"Dangerous as the rapids of the Upper Yangtze are well known to be, the pleasure-seeking tourist who, having bound his heart with triple brass, gaily sets out to view the glorious scenery of the gorges probably little realises the inestimable services performed by the small life-boats, painted a red colour, of which he will see at least one, and sometimes two, stationed at the more dangerous points of the river.

"Before the establishment of the present service of 'red boats' the dangers of the river, though known to exist, were avoided with little success, and the frequent wrecks entailed great

loss of life and property. The fishing-boats in the neighbourhood of a rapid received small sums from the more prosperous inhabitants of the district, in return for which they undertook to do what rescue work they could. This plan, however, did not work well, for it often happened that at the time of a wreck no fishing-boat was near enough the scene of disaster to render any assistance.

"In the 4th year of HSIEN FENG (1854) a prosperous merchant in the neighbourhood of the Hsin-t'an (新灘), by name LI YÜN-K'UEI (李運魁), collected subscriptions from the traders whose junks passed through the rapid, and with the money thus obtained built three boats, on the lines of the fishing-boat, to be exclusively employed in life-saving work. To distinguish them from the ordinary fishing-boat they were painted red. These were the first 'red boats,' and they were known as the 'K'ang Chi T'ang' (康濟堂) life-boats, that being the name of the managing society established by LI and endowed by him with property purchased with the surplus subscriptions.

"Some time later, His Excellency LI HUNG-CHANG (李鴻章), when travelling down river on his return from a special mission to Szechwan, was so impressed with the usefulness of the 'K'ang Chi T'ang' 'red boats' that he brought LI to Ichang, and there obtained for him subscriptions from the Likin and Salt Bureaux. Three more 'red boats' were built, and placed under the supervision of the Ichang Prefect.

"A few years later the premises of the 'K'ang Chi T'ang' were swept away by the river, LI's fields were flooded, his crops spoiled, and he himself fell upon evil days. Funds were scarce and not sufficient to maintain his boats, two of which were therefore dispensed with; the remaining one is still to be seen at the Hsin-t'an, bearing the number '1.'

"In the 9th year of T'UNG CHIH (1870) the Prefect of Ichang had three more 'red boats' built, and stationed them in the Kuei-chou (歸州) district.

"In the 1st year of KUANG HSÜ (1875) the Shantung Futai, TING PAO-CHÊN (丁寶楨), after a personal experience of the dangers of the rapids on his way from Chungking to Ichang, subscribed T'ia 4,000 to be expended in the construction of life-boats. Thirteen 'red boats' were accordingly built and stationed at the different rapids. Five small gun-boats of similar build, but somewhat larger, were also constructed, to patrol the river, acting as river police and generally superintending the crews of the 'red boats.' Henceforward, at all the most dangerous rapids there was stationed at least one life-boat of some description.

"In the 8th year of KUANG HSÜ (1883) the Hunan Ti-t'ai, PAO CH'AO (鮑超), while on his way to Szechwan, was wrecked near Kuei-chou (歸州), and, though his son was drowned, he received great assistance from the 'red boats.' Appreciating the excellent work done by them, he petitioned the Emperor that the number of 'red boats' might be increased. His petition was granted. The number of 'red boats' was increased to 27 and they became a Government institution, and were placed under the Chên-t'ai of Ichang, in whose yamen a special department, known as the Ch'iu-shêng Chü (救生局), 'Life-saving Office,' was established for their control. Regulations were drawn up, plots of ground were bought for the burial of dead bodies found in the river, and marshes were erected at different points along the bank to protect the 'red boat' crews, and those whom they rescued, from the inclemencies of the weather.

"During the following 10 years subscriptions were received from different officials—the largest being T'ia 5,000, from HUANG YÜ-ÊN (黃鏡恩), Ch'êng-mien (成綿) Taotai—in the province of Szechwan, and the number of 'red boats' was increased to 44, where it rests at present.

"The service is admirably organised. The river is divided into districts, each district being patrolled by one of the small gun-boats already mentioned, in charge of a petty official (*shao-kuan*, 哨官). As the rapids vary in point of danger according to the season, periodical inspections are made by the *shao-kuan*, who change the positions of the 'red boats' as they think fit, reporting the new positions to head-quarters.

"An upward-bound junk, while being tracked through a rapid, is closely attended by a 'red boat,' so that help is at hand as soon as an accident occurs. A downward-bound junk, so long as it steers a middle course, has little to fear, but as soon as it is observed to leave this course it is immediately followed by a 'red boat.' Whenever a wreck occurs, a gun is fired to summon the 'red boats' in the neighbourhood to the scene of disaster. The rescue work completed, the name of the junk master, the number of the crew, and the circumstances of the disaster are then and there ascertained and reported to the Ch'iu-shêng Chü.

"For every life saved, each boat's crew receives 1,200 cash, and for every dead body recovered, 400 cash. The corpses, of which a register is kept, are buried at the expense of the Ch'iu-shêng Chü, a stone bearing the register number being placed on each grave.

"The crews of the 'red boats' are strictly forbidden to take part in the salving of cargo, for which the Ch'iu-shêng Chü provides as follows:—At the foot of every important rapid is to be seen a small village, the inhabitants of which are mostly engaged in fishing and providing for the wants of the trackers. These fishermen are invited to register their boats, in return for a small sum of money; and when a wreck occurs, the *ti-pao* or headman calls on as many registered boats as are at hand to accompany him to the wreck, there to save what cargo they can. No unregistered boat is allowed to approach a wreck, under any pretence whatever. The cargo thus saved is removed to a temple, or some other place chosen for the purpose, in the neighbourhood, where it is identified by the owner, who, according to a fixed rate, rewards the fishermen who have taken part in the work. Theft of property and false declaration of ownership are severely punished.

"The following statistics give some idea of the work done by 'red boats':—

"YEAR.	JUNKS WRECKED.	MINIMUM CREW.	MAXIMUM CREW.	LIVES SAVED.
"1899..... { Upward.....	16	15	45	450
Downward.....	33	17	110	1,023
1,473				
1900..... { Upward.....	8	17	47	249
Downward.....	29	17	87	986
1,235				

"The two years referred to are by no means exceptional ones.

"In 1900 there occurred the wreck of the German s.s. *Suihsiang*. On this occasion the 'red boats' saved 285 Chinese, as well as all the Foreigners on board with the exception of the captain. In recognition of these services, \$300 were collected by subscription and presented, by the British Consul at Ichang, to the Ch'iu-shêng Chü, for distribution among the crews of the 'red boats.'

"A subscription list is kept open at the British Consulate, in which visitors making use of the 'red boats,' and desiring to subscribe, can record their names.

"Besides their duties at the rapids, 'red boats' are also employed to escort officials, Foreign as well as Native, who are proceeding from Ichang to Chungking. Tourists often enjoy the privilege of a similar escort when 'red boats' are available—which is not always the case: it is only those 'red boats' which are not on duty at the rapids that can be thus employed, and in no case can a 'red boat' be withdrawn from its post to serve as an escort. Such an escort is of invaluable assistance to the traveller, besides the protection it gives him against the dangers of the rapids. Comfortably seated in his house-boat and accompanied by a 'red boat,' the traveller takes precedence of all other craft at the rapids, instead of having to fall in at the rear of a long file of junks, sometimes as many as a hundred, and await his turn to be tracked over.

"The yearly income of the Ch'iu-shêng Chü amounts to about T\$ 13,700, and is derived from the following sources:—

"1°. The interest on 1,000 *tiao*—a sum invested on behalf of the 'red boat' fund by the Salt Likin Bureau.

"2°. T\$ 13,000 a year from the Salt Likin Bureau.

"3°. 40 *tiao* a month from the Chia Li Chü (加釐局).

"4°. T\$ 20 a month from the Ching-i-shih (荊宜施) Taotai.

"To this must be added donations received from officials and others who have made use of the 'red boats' as escort.

"The upkeep of a 'red boat' is estimated to be about T\$ 200 a year; of a patrolling gun-boat, about T\$ 480; of the Ch'iu-shêng Chü, about T\$ 450. Over T\$ 2,000 is spent every year on rewards to the crews and on burying dead bodies. According to this estimate, the total expenses for a year would amount to about T\$ 13,700, and would be just covered by the annual income. Generally, however, the expenses exceed the income to a small extent.

"The present type of 'red boat,' which has undergone several modifications, is a shallow vessel, built on the lines of a fishing sampan, about 10 feet long and 6 feet wide. It is steered by a stern-sweep about 10 feet in length, often supplemented by a bow-sweep, which gives the steerer perfect control over his craft. The crew consists of the helmsman and four boatmen."

(r.) There is nothing to be added to the information given under this section in the last Decennial Report, and above under (e).

(e.) Similarly, there is little or no change to be recorded in the constitution and methods of Native postal hong, to which, however, a new class has been added, calling itself "steamer postal agency." There are three of this class established at Ichang, supposed to forward

their mails through the Imperial Post. The rates for letters, parcels, and drafts appear to have been reduced by about one-half by the overland agencies since the last Report was written: this might have been expected to be the result of the establishment of the Imperial Post Office in 1896.

(2.) No important changes in Customs work proper have taken place during the decade. The revision of the Yangtze Regulations in 1898 modified, to some extent, the routine of the office, which was assimilated to that of the coast port Custom Houses. The abolition of the Duty-free rule by the Peking Protocol of 1901 has considerably increased the responsibilities of the Custom House, which is now obliged to exercise a stricter supervision over the movements of "personal effects," household stores, furniture, etc., than was considered necessary under the old Tariff. In 1901, too, the steady increase in the number of Foreign passengers travelling between Ichang and Chungking—officials, missionaries, newspaper correspondents, tourists, business men, man-of-war reliefs, etc.—led to the regulation of this traffic under the Chungking-Ichang Junk Rules of 1891, which had previously only been applied to cargo-carrying craft, passenger vessels remaining under the more or less nominal control of the Native Customs. It has thus become possible to place some check on the constant smuggling by laodah and crew, under the protection of the Foreign flag which it is customary for every individual Foreigner to hoist on his junk, and which, backed by a forbidding-looking *yang-jên* in the cabin, had been found most effective in discouraging the unwelcome attentions of the Native Customs officials.

In directions beyond the legitimate sphere of the Maritime Customs, heavy additions have been made to the work and responsibilities of Commissioners and their staffs.

The inauguration of the Imperial Post Office, with the Inspector General of Customs as Inspector General of Posts, and the Commissioners at the Treaty ports as District Postmasters, took place in 1896. Its operations, at first confined to the interport steam lines, have gradually, and of late rapidly, extended far and wide inland, and are apparently intended to cover this vast Empire with a network of courier lines. One of the first of these to be established was the Ichang-Chungking line, started in 1897, with one courier leaving this end every five days. It now runs four fully-laden couriers every two days, on an average, carrying mail matter (letters, newspapers, etc.) for Western China. Parcels are forwarded by junk. All mails going westward have to be repacked and re-sorted at Ichang. In 1901 a branch office was opened at Wan-hsien, a place of some importance as a distributing centre for Eastern Szechwan, about half-way on the route between Ichang and Chungking. So far as the Ichang district itself is concerned, the mountainous nature of the country, the lack of communications, and the absence of centres of population have been against any extension of the postal system, except in the line of the river.

There is some evidence that the Chinese public appreciates the extreme cheapness and relative speed of the Imperial Post, and the quantity of Chinese correspondence carried on the Ichang line seems to be steadily, if slowly, increasing. At the same time, the local Native postal establishments continue to hold their own, and have even added to their number recently. One of their advantages is that they practically pay nothing for the carriage of their mails over the steamer lines; another is that they collect letters from senders and have no rigid closing

hours; and it is probable that their system of payment, or part payment, on delivery commends itself to the sender, as a rule. In any case, it seems probable that it will be many decades before the conditions of his life excite in the placid Chinese that restless and insatiable desire to know—that eagerness for news—which consumes the modern Westerner and keeps the flow of correspondence at high pressure.

In November 1901, in conformity with the stipulation of the Peking Protocol of September pledging certain revenues to be collected by the Foreign Customs for the service of the indemnities, the local branch of the Ching-chou Ch'ao Kuan (荊州鈔關) was placed under the control of the Commissioner of Customs. This institution levies Port Dues on junks and Duties on timber, and its revenues belong to the Peking Board of Works (工部), to which it has had to remit a fixed yearly quota—doubtless in lieu of the original contribution of timber. The office is commonly spoken of as the "Mu Kuan" (木關), or Timber Barrier, and there is little doubt that the so-called Port Dues are essentially a tax on the timber of which each vessel is composed. On a rough but by no means excessive computation, about 20,000 junks are measured and assessed for Dues yearly by the Ichang office. It will be understood, therefore, that the efficient supervision of its working, and the settlement of the constant questions and disputes which daily arise, form no slight addition to the labours of the Commissioner and his staff.

(u.) No notable development in naval or military matters has taken place in this district during the decade. Nevertheless, recent activity, at Wuchang and other provincial capitals, in drilling and equipping troops on Western models has had its effect at Ichang, which possesses two training camps, of 500 men each, known as the *Ts'ao-fang-ying* (操防營) and *I-fang-ying* (宜防營). The first of these constitutes a sort of militia for local defence, recruited exclusively from the natives of the district. Though carried on with unceasing regularity, the training at this camp is not very severe—except, perhaps, in the matter of bugle blowing,—and the pay of the ranks is only Ta 2.40 a month. It is probable that the men pursue other avocations side by side with soldiering.

The *I-fang* camp, on the other hand, is organised altogether on modern lines. The men here, though recruited locally, are, almost without exception, strangers—a large proportion from Hunan. It is found that the native of Ichang cannot, or will not, stand the physical training required in this camp, which includes modern military gymnastics as practised in Western armies. The general arrangements, as regards cleanliness, discipline, instruction, and exercise, appear to be well up to date, and reflect the greatest credit on the General in command of the district, FU T'ING-CH'EN (傅廷臣), and the two commandants, LI HSIANG-MING (李相名) and WU CH'UN-SHENG (吳俊生). The men are sent down in batches to Wuchang, for attendance at the camps of instruction there, and so kept in a high state of efficiency. They are hardy-looking, active, muscular fellows—younger, generally, than is desirable, however. The pay of each soldier is only Ta 4 a month, out of which he has to find his food and his uniform. It is not surprising that, on these terms, it is found impossible to retain men for more than two years or so, after which they disappear and are practically lost to the government which has been at the expense of training them. This is a weak point

in China's recruiting system, only to be met, apparently, by giving the men better pay. At the same time it is worth noting that in the course of a very few years an enormous number of sturdy youths will have been passed through a severe course of military training, thus forming a reserve which might possibly be at the disposal of the government in an emergency, but which also might considerably add to the forces of disorder.

(v.) There are now five missionary societies engaged in this district—four Protestant and one Roman Catholic,—of which the oldest is the Franciscan Mission of Western Hupeh, established as a separate diocese in 1870. I am indebted to the local heads of the various missions for the particulars which follow.

Franciscan Mission.—The diocese of the Franciscan Mission of Western Hupeh embraces the Ching-chou (荊州), I-ch'ang (宜昌), Shih-nan (施南), and Ching-mén (荊門) prefectures, and has 72 centres situated in the following districts: Ching-chou-fu—Chiang-ling (江陵), Kung-an (公安), Shih-shou (石首), Chien-li (監利), Sung-tzu (松滋), Chih-chiang (枝江), I-tu (宜都); I-ch'ang-fu—Tung-hu (東湖), Ch'ang-yang (長陽), Ch'ang-lo (長樂), Pa-tung (巴東), Kuei-chou (歸州), Ho-feng-chou (鶴峰州); Shih-nan-fu—En-shih (恩施), Hsien-feng (咸豐), Li-ch'uan (利川), Chien-shih (建始); Ching-mén-chou—Ching-mén (荊門), Tang-yang (當陽).

The centres are administered by 12 European missionaries, 8 Chinese priests, and 3 lay brothers. Attached to the mission, and charged with the care of the hospital, dispensary, novitiate school, and orphanage at Ichang, are 16 sisters (*missionnaires de Marie*). The Bishop of the diocese is Mgr. VERHAEGEN.

The mission possesses the following establishments: a seminary, 19 schools, a free hospital, and three free dispensaries.

The progress made by this mission is shown in the following comparative statement:—

	1892.	1901.
Baptised Christians	4,364	6,001
Catechumens	57	3,270
European missionaries	8	12
Chinese priests	7	8
Lay brothers	3
Sisters	7	16
School pupils	297	490
Hospital patients	722
Patients attended dispensaries	46,169

The Church of Scotland Mission was established in 1878. Its staff has been considerably increased during the decade, and now consists of the Rev. WM. DEANS (senior missionary), Dr. GEO. F. STOOKE, Dr. AND. GRAHAM, Nurse MINNIE BERE, Miss C. FRASER, and Miss M. MOORE. The wives of the missionaries, although engaging in mission work, are not reckoned on the staff. The Rev. T. KEARNEY is on furlough.

In 1892 the mission premises consisted of a Native church and school, and a hospital and dispensary, in the centre of the city. The surroundings were insanitary and not conducive to successful medical work. Recently a large hospital and dispensary have been built outside the city, in an open, healthy situation, two wards of which have been accepted by the British Admiralty for men-of-war cases. A large Native church has been built outside the South Gate of the city. The old premises are still used as a street chapel and schools for vernacular and Anglo-vernacular teaching. The lady workers have recently erected a girls boarding-school, near the Ichang Recreation Ground.

In 1892 mission work in all its branches was confined entirely to Ichang city. From 1896 onwards work has been advancing in country districts. The mission now has stations, occupied by Native agents and constantly visited by the Foreign missionaries, at the following towns and market villages within a radius of 100 miles from Ichang: I-tu (宜都), Chih-chiang (枝江), Yang-ch'i (楊溪), Tung-shih (董市), Sung-tzu (松滋), Lung-ch'uan-p'u (龍泉鋪), Tu-mên-ya (土門埡), Shuang-tien-tzu (雙店子), Min-chia-ch'ang (關家場), and Yü-ch'i-ho (清溪河).

In 1892 the number of baptised adults was 66; of children, 14—at the close of the decade the numbers were 625 adults and 194 children. The total number baptised during the 10 years was 819.

In all stations the members contribute weekly towards the support of the sick, infirm, and aged, the money being disbursed by men selected by the members and Native catechists. In seven of the out-stations premises for mission work and for worship are provided by the members themselves.

The American Church Mission was started in 1888. The mission house—only just built—was destroyed in 1891, the Rev. H. SOWERBY only escaping with his life. In 1894 the Rev. H. C. COLLINS took charge, the work at Ichang having been carried on by a Chinese clergyman in the interval. A small school was put up, in which Dr. COLLINS lived till the mission house was rebuilt in 1897. In 1898 a chapel and a residence for the Native clergyman were built inside the city. In 1900 the Rev. D. T. HUNTINGTON took charge, but did not reside at Ichang till 1901.

The mission comprises a church, a boys day-school, and a girls school. A minimum probation of a year and a half being required, very few Natives have been baptised since the troubles of 1900. The total number baptised since the mission commenced work is 180; the number reported at present is 156, of whom 74 are communicants. There are 50 persons under instruction for baptism. A somewhat severe system of discipline has been introduced, by which those who offend against good morals are required to confess before the church and to sit in a back seat until restored to communion; failing this, they are excommunicated.

In the boys day-school there are 40 boys, who are taught the Chinese classics up to a certain stage, some arithmetic, and a little geography. An attempt is being made to teach the reading of Chinese with the Hongkong primers and readers. The more advanced pupils study English. A fee of 3,000 cash per annum is charged, which pays about a quarter of the expenses of the school.

The girls school has 15 pupils. No fees are charged, and the teaching is almost purely Chinese.

It is hoped to enlarge the work next year, by increasing the number of boys in the school to 50, moving it outside the city, and adding a small boarding department for boys from the mission schools at Shasi. A larger fee will be charged for those who study English. Some industrial work, sewing, and knitting will be taught in the girls school. Out-stations will be opened in one or two of the surrounding towns. A normal school carried on by the mission at Hankow for the last two years will be moved to Ichang.

The Swedish Missionary Society commenced work in China in 1890. Its four principal stations are at Wuchang (武昌), Huang-chou (黃州), Shasi, and Ichang, all in Hupeh province.

Work at Ichang commenced in 1894. It consists in preaching and teaching in both Sunday and street chapels, selling books and tracts, and itinerating in villages and towns of the district. Day-schools are maintained, in which boys and girls are given instruction in the Christian religion, geography, arithmetic, and the Chinese classics.

The mission has four out-stations, at Chiang-k'ou (江口), Ho-jung (河溶), Yuan-an (遠安), and Tang-yang (當陽), in charge of Native evangelists superintended by the Foreign workers.

The church members at Ichang number about 100; at the out-stations, about the same. The school children number about 60.

The China Inland Mission has a house here for the accommodation of its members travelling backwards and forwards—of whom there are a considerable number. This mission, now represented at Ichang by the Rev. Geo. F. ROWE, does not, I understand, proselytise in the district at present.

(w.) to (y.).

(z.) Among the many questions affecting the interests of commerce which the closing decade leaves unsolved, the one with which Ichang is most directly concerned is the steam navigation of the Upper Yangtze. This is really a question for experts, who, I believe, are almost unanimously in favour of powerful tugs working between the difficult rapids, and towing the Native craft as used at present, admirably adapted by their lightness and elasticity for work among the rapids. At the dangerous and difficult points much could be done in the way of regulating and improving haulage, without undue or too hasty interference with the vast population which earns a meagre livelihood by tracking junks up river. Wan-hsien (萬縣) once reached, about half-way between Ichang and Chungking, the difficulties of the route are over, except for the strong current, and a clear stretch of navigable water extends as far as Sui-fu (叙府), or even further. Doubtless, before another decade has passed the anticipations of the framers of the Chefoo Convention will have been fulfilled and the Upper Yangtze will have been brought under the irresistible sway of steam.

It will have been seen from what precedes that there is, at present, not much prospect of any development of the resources of the Ichang district, poor as it is in all that makes for

commercial or industrial prosperity. There is little doubt, however, that the port itself will come in for a full share of whatever of increased activity may be awaiting this high-road to the west. Its position as the transshipping stage between the Middle and Upper Yangtze (whatever be the nature of the craft destined to navigate the latter) is now well assured, to all appearance, notwithstanding the claims of its commercially central and powerful rival Shasi—claims which were put forward too late, which were certainly not strengthened by the insane riot that took place there in 1898, and which are considerably weakened by its bad anchorage and holding-ground for steamers. It may be confidently asserted, therefore, that Ichang, guarding as it does the gate of the Yangtze Gorges, will continue to thrive as a depôt for transit goods and to be at once the happy haunt of the tourist and the paradise of the tax collector.

F. S. UNWIN,
Commissioner of Customs.

CUSTOM HOUSE,
ICHANG, 31st December 1901.

GROSS AND NET VALUES OF TRADE, ETC., 1892-1901.

YEAR.	FOREIGN GOODS.			NATIVE GOODS.			TOTAL NET FOREIGN AND NATIVE IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.	TOTAL GROSS VALUE OF TRADE.	TRANSIT TRADE.		
	Gross Imports.	Re-exports.	Net Imports.	Gross Imports.	Re-exports.	Net Imports.				Inwards.	Outwards.	TOTAL.
1892.....	HL. 72	HL. 72	HL. 72	HL. 72	HL. 72	HL. 72	HL. 72	HL. 72	HL. 72	HL. 72	HL. 72	HL. 72
1893.....	6,091,517	5,484,279	607,238	3,944,659	3,469,652	475,007	1,082,245	353,257	10,389,433	372,161	...	372,161
1894.....	3,914,265	3,467,477	446,788	3,987,157	3,539,458	456,699	903,487	397,612	8,804,909	435,190	...	435,190
1895.....	4,898,481	4,325,878	572,603	5,475,422	5,102,042	373,380	945,983	317,641	10,319,886	5,576	...	5,576
1896.....	5,721,633	5,096,458	625,175	7,173,445	6,781,353	392,122	1,017,297	478,734	13,372,812	175,299	...	175,299
1897.....	7,675,201	6,775,643	899,558	6,948,433	6,103,660	844,773	1,744,331	465,970	15,089,604	59,256	...	59,256
1898.....	8,245,745	7,597,843	647,902	8,219,846	7,358,210	881,636	1,370,430	423,950	18,326,483	10,271	...	10,271
1899.....	7,348,780	6,858,498	490,282	8,219,846	7,934,831	285,015	775,297	520,432	15,568,626	4,487	...	4,487
1900.....	15,644,036	14,054,299	1,589,737	14,888,480	13,405,776	1,482,704	3,072,541	633,810	30,532,516	16,887	...	16,887
1901.....	10,995,273	10,479,156	516,117	9,907,471	10,826,391	622,115	1,137,232	699,838	23,143,617	18,858	...	18,858
1901.....	11,501,209	10,391,193	910,016	12,328,796	11,656,095	672,701	1,782,717	856,238	33,830,005	72,625	...	72,625

APPENDICES.

APPENDIX No. 1.

APPENDIX

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF THE PRINCIPAL

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1892.		1893.		1894.		1895.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
COTTON GOODS.									
Shirtings, Grey, Plain.....	Pieces	591,619	946,591	415,839	665,342	378,291	605,266	524,263	1,048,526
" White, ".....	"	90,979	159,214	64,660	113,155	45,251	79,189	57,378	143,445
" Dyed, ".....	"	10,663	19,193	3,717	6,691	4,347	7,825	4,712	12,722
" Figured.....	"	21,664	43,328	3,187	6,374	6,340	12,680	6,772	16,930
T-Cloths.....	"	8,504	14,882	7,740	13,545	5,560	9,730	2,975	5,206
Drills, English and Indian.....	"	210	420	450	900	210	420
" American.....	"	8,835	19,437	2,498	5,496	2,019	4,442	5,525	16,575
Jeans, English.....	"	200	272	80	109	60	82	180	360
" American.....	"
Sheetings, English and Indian.....	"	11,774	26,491	11,930	26,842	3,887	8,746	15,690	39,225
" American.....	"
Chintzes, Furnitures, etc.....	"	55,158	88,253	32,769	52,430	26,940	43,104	46,400	74,240
Printed Cotton Twills.....	"	3,513	5,621	3,700	5,920	160	256	1,330	2,660
Turkey Red Cottons.....	"	31,932	38,318	15,570	18,684	20,060	24,072	18,952	34,114
Cotton Lastings.....	"	26,152	65,380	23,871	59,677	17,989	44,973	35,420	95,634
" Italians.....	"	17,473	43,683	18,918	47,295	34,037	85,093	45,812	123,692
" Crimps.....	"
Velvets.....	"	1,576	6,304	1,202	4,808	1,735	6,940	2,710	17,886
Velveteens.....	"	2,635	10,540	2,347	9,388	1,230	4,920	2,060	11,330
Handkerchiefs.....	Dozens	13,162	3,949	11,192	3,358	4,248	1,274	6,358	3,179
Towels.....	"	15,684	4,700	17,484	5,080	9,391	2,743	10,842	3,707
Blankets, Cotton.....	Pieces
Cotton Flannel.....	"
Japanese Cotton Cloth.....	"	236	165	234	179	706	259	1,485	983
Cotton Goods, Unclassed.....	Value	...	1,577	...	2,508	...	5,585	...	5,221
" Yarn, English and Indian.....	Piculs	156,776	3,140,425	81,495	1,630,185	138,878	2,780,785	147,407	2,953,252
" " Japanese.....	"	168	3,360
Chinese Cotton Goods.*									
Shirtings, Grey.....	Pieces	1,116	1,692	150	165	1,765	1,975	2,010	4,020
" Dyed.....	"
Cotton Yarn.....	Piculs	300	4,500	1,893	28,395	1,800	27,000	5,956	119,120
WOOLLEN GOODS.									
Camlets, English.....	Pieces	5,865	58,650	3,872	38,720	1,470	14,700	2,860	34,320
Lastings.....	"	23,501	165,137	14,929	104,503	7,855	54,985	8,538	68,304
Long Kils.....	"	8,960	44,800	8,185	40,925	6,200	31,000	10,950	60,225
Spanish Stripes.....	"	3,138	31,380	2,906	29,060	2,761	27,610	2,960	29,600
Cloth, Broad, Medium, etc.....	"	361	10,830	484	14,520	250	7,500	505	11,110
" Russian.....	"	3,697	92,425	2,079	51,975	756	18,900	1,640	41,000
Blankets.....	Pairs	...	286	...	1,144
Flannel.....	Pieces	311	2,177	248	1,736	120	1,200
Italian Cloth.....	"	9,796	48,963	5,202	25,704	9,149	54,122	10,448	61,608
Woollen Yarn.....	Piculs	32	1,916	39	2,324	84	5,053	81	4,888
METALS.									
Iron Wire.....	Piculs	1,934	11,601	1,799	10,797	1,371	8,225	2,488	14,926
Brass ".....	"	224	5,152	94	2,162	144	3,306	197	3,948
Brassware.....	"	41	1,020	40	996

* Steam Factory products.

2.

HGN IMPORTS, 1892-1901.

1896.		1897.		1898.		1899.		1900.		1901.	
ty.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tn.		Hk. Tn.		Hk. Tn.		Hk. Tn.		Hk. Tn.		Hk. Tn.
99	1,082,157	467,735	1,262,885	379,040	1,023,407	649,872	1,754,655	388,887	1,049,995	343,588	927,688
35	198,486	55,778	200,800	54,356	195,681	92,520	370,080	49,921	199,684	78,731	314,924
21	15,403	1,780	6,229	496	1,736	5,026	17,591	1,359	4,417
33	12,649	1,986	6,554	1,131	3,732	1,106	3,650	830	2,739	255	765
25	9,518	3,870	10,449	3,470	9,369	3,690	9,225	2,400	6,225	5,115	12,788
70	6,549	3,230	11,952	1,290	4,773	3,035	12,140	600	2,400	300	1,050
81	20,280	10,212	37,785	12,347	45,684	9,435	37,740	2,955	11,820	20,231	80,924
56	1,427	110	429	530	2,067	210	735
...	580	2,030	540	1,890	2,280	6,840
33	66,279	32,570	97,710	27,609	82,827	67,110	201,330	37,990	113,970	39,040	117,120
25	2,475	40	120	1,480	4,440	560	1,680	940	3,055
30	90,980	15,992	31,984	12,224	24,448	37,315	93,288	17,988	44,971	18,516	46,290
11	31,863	3,340	10,020	2,050	6,150	900	2,700	3,756	11,268	2,940	10,290
12	30,624	9,055	18,110	8,526	17,052	17,579	35,158	15,727	31,454	13,514	30,406
19	132,196	26,912	107,648	37,230	148,920	82,626	371,817	78,038	351,171	82,872	372,924
14	360,864	49,139	294,834	42,070	252,420	100,514	552,827	80,863	444,746	108,707	597,889
...	1,569	7,440	9,674	12,781	3,748	7,607
22	11,144	784	5,488	708	4,956	1,762	12,334	1,708	11,956	2,999	22,493
18	12,144	762	6,096	858	6,864	1,044	8,352	394	3,152	831	6,648
38	7,999	15,556	7,778	7,881	3,940	15,571	6,228	20,284	7,100	12,108	6,054
13	5,532	14,853	5,248	13,839	5,143	21,972	8,547	12,481	5,633	11,223	4,816
...	405	526	821	683	1,024	1,530	1,910	1,721
30	1,791	1,498	3,174	1,470	4,162	6,575	14,452	1,422	3,442	10,822	27,667
18	3,427	16,083	9,738	4,437	2,433	998	503	2,614	3,402	66	65
...	2,603	...	3,806	...	1,975	...	2,436	...	4,654	...	9,837
34	4,009,200	192,973	4,342,668	176,200	3,967,129	353,668	9,550,809	221,401	5,977,962	273,683	6,569,019
14	44,814	11,676	245,196	9,536	200,256	37,613	940,325	41,541	1,038,525	3,550	88,750
...
35	6,795	700	2,100	900	2,700	3,660	10,980	62	217	106	382
...	...	480	1,440	2,112	4,224
71	255,002	41,721	917,862	63,845	1,404,590	163,900	4,097,500	133,459	3,336,475	64,297	1,607,425
...
30	34,580	2,482	32,266	1,320	17,160	2,747	35,711	2,280	29,640	877	12,278
10	28,595	3,910	37,145	4,329	41,125	3,865	36,718	2,499	23,741	2,893	27,484
30	39,060	5,185	32,147	5,380	33,356	9,366	56,196	7,276	43,656	8,300	58,100
24	51,528	3,490	41,880	2,387	28,644	4,115	49,380	1,428	17,136	4,766	71,490
13	29,155	780	27,300	630	22,050	843	21,918	697	18,122	2,148	55,848
12	38,050	1,278	31,950	500	12,500	631	15,144	780	18,720	550	12,100
12	85	121	484	720	1,748	687	1,540	1,088	2,531
30	1,080	232	2,784	40	480	220	2,640	172	3,064
12	65,599	12,128	79,645	10,203	75,396	13,419	90,118	4,277	30,515	13,896	106,032
30	13,000	121	12,100	198	19,800	168	11,760	362	25,340	290	20,300
...
32	13,212	1,187	6,172	1,752	9,110	1,284	7,704	828	3,726	2,108	12,014
30	2,760	106	2,438	74	1,554	33	693	51	1,071	99	2,079
19	625	37	925	22	550	25	625	74	2,072

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF THE PRINCIPAL

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1892.		1893.		1894.		1895.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Steel.....	Piculs
Nickel.....	"
SUNDRIES.									
Aniseed, Star, Whole.....	Piculs	568	6,818	205	2,455	127	1,521	527	7,907
Betel-nuts.....	"	3,288	23,015	2,383	16,683	501	3,508	2,234	10,051
Bicho de Mar, Black.....	"	1,296	51,822	1,024	40,944	1,242	49,684	1,060	42,400
Buttons, Brass.....	Gross	66,780	100,170	55,658	83,487	60,665	90,998	88,929	40,018
Fancy.....	"
Cardamoms, Superior.....	Piculs	139	27,882	195	38,964	116	23,190	105	15,472
Inferior.....	"	726	18,881	1,113	28,926	627	16,289	1,725	44,848
Casna Ligna.....	"	990	11,874	850	10,196	718	8,625	1,070	12,838
Twigs.....	"	2,054	8,215	2,976	11,904	3,508	14,031	2,554	5,619
Clocks and Watches.....	Pieces	5,040	5,546	4,696	6,534	2,498	4,366	2,569	4,068
Cuttle-fish.....	Piculs	3,851	38,506	5,920	59,203	8,218	82,177	2,760	27,605
Dyes, Aniline.....	Value	95,901	...	75,166	...	60,762	...	90,082	...
Fans of all kinds.....	Pieces	1,071,137	8,009	1,419,819	10,526	1,801,747	13,453	2,536,695	18,782
Ginseng.....	Piculs	312	100,507	293	105,390	211	76,014	341	12,272
Horns, Rhinoceros.....	"	13	6,625	1	525	1	575	3	1,430
Isinglass.....	"	1,552	27,931	1,843	33,165	1,948	35,070	1,101	24,221
Lamps and Burners.....	Pieces	39,277	2,853	32,983	3,556	14,895	2,088	4,168	594
Lung-ngana, Dried.....	Piculs	911	7,288	221	1,764	323	2,587	492	4,425
Mats, Straw.....	Pieces	412,610	8,252	104,450	2,089	170,407	3,408	235,234	4,705
Medicines.....	Value	...	20,360	...	12,349	...	13,334	...	20,354
Needles.....	Mills	78,400	10,112	73,277	9,578	56,514	8,593	78,960	13,751
Oil, Kerosene.....	Gallons	28,708	2,812	53,004	5,235	25,870	2,647	19,410	2,078
Peel, Orange.....	Piculs	1,373	9,608	719	5,034	768	5,375	673	6,058
Pepper, Black.....	"	4,014	60,216	3,765	50,478	6,042	90,623	3,859	38,593
Phosphorus.....	"
Prawns and Shrimps, Dried.....	"	550	8,246	794	11,915	696	10,447	501	7,519
Rattans, Split.....	"	876	8,763	346	3,460	491	4,912	596	5,961
Sandalwood.....	"	1,568	15,682	1,495	14,952	669	6,694	1,116	7,813
Seaweed.....	"	22,605	90,420	19,651	78,602	40,389	161,558	29,584	118,334
Sharks Fins.....	"	236	21,150	211	20,075	206	19,027	236	22,647
Silk and Cotton Ribbons.....	Value	3,896	...	9,713
Soap.....	"
Sugar, White.....	Piculs	196	980	488	2,441	610	3,660
Umbrellas, Cotton.....	Pieces	11,696	3,898	20,089	6,698	29,667	9,889	20,868	6,956
Worm Tablets, in Bottles.....	Dosens	6,644	6,644	1,700	1,700	2,440	2,440	2,400	2,150

FOREIGN IMPORTS, 1892-1901—Continued.

1896.		1897.		1898.		1899.		1900.		1901.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Hk. Fh</i>		<i>Hk. Fh</i>		<i>Hk. Fh</i>		<i>Hk. Fh</i>		<i>Hk. Fh</i>		<i>Hk. Fh</i>
468	2,340	87	435	658	3,290	160	1,352	1,614	9,362
23	1,338	26	1,264	102	5,084	48	2,327	10	537
224	3,584	293	4,688	83	1,328	395	6,320	167	2,672	356	5,415
1,866	9,330	2,657	13,285	2,541	12,705	2,262	18,096	2,374	18,992	1,656	13,248
1,527	61,080	1,061	42,440	704	28,160	1,505	90,300	1,055	63,300	1,161	81,270
49,673	29,804	73,698	29,479	62,719	25,087	48,100	19,240	117,410	41,094	143,928	43,178
24,422	8,093	60,330	26,562	19,004	7,008	24,838	8,060	43,155	13,431	88,760	23,373
241	39,765	55	9,075	72	11,880	110	27,500	143	35,750	208	74,880
992	25,792	1,182	30,732	857	22,282	1,260	31,500	1,217	30,425	1,234	32,084
1,078	15,092	908	12,712	602	8,428	715	8,580	558	6,696	1,059	12,708
4,060	16,240	4,919	12,298	5,485	13,712	2,298	9,192	1,634	6,536	3,258	22,806
6,032	11,128	4,630	8,518	3,901	9,538	6,400	13,531	6,320	13,114	11,230	18,057
3,481	52,215	6,076	91,140	2,227	33,405	8,436	126,540	2,002	34,034	5,190	93,420
...	97,479	...	76,666	...	94,634	...	180,416	...	147,459	...	133,207
3,076,895	35,511	2,185,766	20,275	1,707,185	18,793	1,576,252	16,622	2,749,729	19,710	2,180,292	20,712
466	323,400	369	236,791	518	334,939	255	153,000	441	352,800	529	423,200
7	4,200	11	8,800	19	15,200	10	8,000	3	2,400	11	3,300
1,197	27,531	1,123	25,829	414	9,522	901	20,723	729	14,580	832	21,632
15,645	2,456	14,390	3,557	14,120	3,722	13,984	1,693	27,848	3,918	31,169	8,213
399	3,591	290	2,610	360	3,240	211	1,899	126	1,134	325	2,925
283,640	5,673	413,306	8,266	318,250	6,365	820,314	16,406	430,341	12,912	494,834	19,793
...	18,395	...	19,255	...	25,762	...	21,758	...	10,968	...	28,783
110,275	17,855	100,720	18,680	128,747	26,025	178,290	37,409	267,025	46,430	155,720	29,607
55,310	6,724	107,433	14,025	32,800	4,776	132,820	18,274	293,640	46,933	208,570	33,881
1,004	9,036	596	3,364	1,100	9,900	842	6,736	686	5,488	558	5,580
4,811	48,110	3,588	32,292	769	6,921	1,974	39,480	2,632	52,640	2,911	58,220
...
506	8,096	596	9,536	157	2,512	456	7,296	405	6,480	467	7,005
700	7,000	1,146	11,460	640	6,400	2,130	21,300	877	8,770	1,110	8,880
1,397	13,970	757	6,813	1,173	10,557	634	7,608	1,065	19,170	759	9,108
26,375	65,938	34,357	85,893	34,586	86,465	24,514	73,542	19,567	58,701	42,867	128,601
175	16,625	196	18,628	122	13,476	251	32,548	190	20,952	130	13,559
...	16,894	...	46,292	...	43,455	...	53,886	...	65,368	...	108,007
...	3,028	3,257	...	3,743	...	6,943	...	4,222
876	5,256	4,628	27,768	3,004	18,024	5,184	36,288	4,390	30,730	9,956	64,716
23,868	7,160	26,908	7,803	32,916	9,545	29,211	8,764	62,396	18,718	55,023	27,512
3,248	2,385	2,848	2,046	2,159	1,926	1,720	1,368	2,220	1,784	2,280	1,818

APPENDIX

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF THE PRINCIPAL

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1892.		1893.		1894.		1895.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Alum, White.....	Piculs	524	Hk. 7h	1,931	Hk. 7h	2,327	Hk. 7h	1,940	Hk. 7h
Bones, Tiger.....	"	125	7,512	126	7,532	134	8,050	112	3,956
Brass-foil.....	"	290	10,162	284	9,931	81	2,825	157	5,492
Bristles.....	"	4,219	42,332	5,172	51,908	6,226	82,206	4,972	89,265
Buttons, Brass.....	"	145	8,695	134	8,059	97	5,802	108	5,930
Cassia Twigs.....	"	575	2,300	163	652	335	1,341	985	2,166
China-root.....	"	3,171	12,682	2,811	11,242	4,804	19,214	6,786	67,859
Chinaware.....	"	207	2,566	446	9,266
Cloth, Native, and Nankeens.....	"	34	1,192	37	1,289	43	1,518	30	1,217
Cotton, Raw.....	"	4,326	30,282	5,170	36,189	11,870	118,699	33,333	399,999
Cuttle-fish.....	"	2,309	23,089	910	9,101	4,626	46,256	2,361	23,612
Fans of all kinds.....	Pieces	448,228	18,993	860,426	15,297	774,947	35,743	751,358	34,556
Feathers, Duck and Fowl.....	Piculs	1,380	6,886	2,407	11,819	2,779	13,932	2,585	12,920
Fungus.....	"	3,657	43,890	1,930	23,165	2,541	38,108	1,353	20,293
Glassware.....	"	656	9,844	994	14,916	1,114	16,709	1,099	16,488
Gold Thread, Imitation.....	"	63	2,505	52	20,932	93	37,018	57	11,430
Hemp.....	"	10,871	76,099	9,672	67,704	9,422	65,953	9,865	68,988
Hides, Cow and Buffalo.....	"	66	664	308	2,775
Horns, ".....	"	1,536	9,218	1,477	8,860	1,537	9,222	805	7,246
Jadestoneware.....	Pieces	16,896	11,566	23,695	11,874	77,724	11,266	25,695	14,001
Lampblack.....	Piculs	58	1,294	32	715	35	775	22	523
Lead, Yunnan.....	"
Leather.....	"	1,167	14,005	1,438	17,260	1,207	14,490	1,000	12,999
Medicines.....	Value	...	459,875	...	523,613	...	530,782	...	586,204
Musk.....	Tails	45,533	284,569	54,371	339,819	48,350	422,975	51,662	322,875
Nutgalls.....	Piculs	10,186	101,862	13,024	130,235	11,422	148,485	16,490	214,373
Opium, Native, Szechwan.....	"	2,472	429,192	2,576	450,860	5,076	1,015,244	10,554	2,110,868
" " Yunnan.....	"	136	30,587	81	18,194	697	179,274	986	246,565
" " Dries.....	"	18	1,910	4	448	42	4,988
" " Lamps.....	Pieces	84,345	12,183	59,323	10,708	69,609	13,988	73,914	15,908
Paper, 1st Quality.....	Piculs	816	11,427	1,038	14,532	1,417	19,718	1,324	26,485
Pearls, False.....	"	59	5,928	64	638	80	8,003	45	2,687
Peel, Orange.....	"	518	3,623	443	3,104	327	2,289	723	5,783
Pipes, Brass and White Metal.....	Pieces	11,749	10,074	4,766	3,796
Prawns and Shrimps, Dried.....	Piculs	321	4,815	85	595	464	6,965	398	5,973
Rhubarb.....	"	4,889	122,214	6,009	150,234	7,436	148,722	5,919	88,787
" Broken or Refuse.....	"
Safflower.....	"	1,069	48,239	630	68,992	871	41,179	256	12,206
Sea Blubber.....	"	2,974	8,970	2,584	7,579	2,370	7,112	2,096	6,442
Silk, Raw, White.....	"	5	1,343	24	5,876	3	788
" " Yellow.....	"	4,997	999,380	3,645	729,003	3,007	562,287	3,446	637,540
" " Wild.....	"	359	35,904	429	42,949	697	69,709	620	62,015
" Refuse.....	"	8,270	105,399	1,106	22,129	702	14,039	1,058	31,741
" Cocoons, Refuse.....	"	419	10,875	9,866	247,881	8,679	219,452	6,483	160,930
" Piece Goods and Pongees.....	"	586	333,355	537	303,495	580	312,621	641	346,676
Skins (Furs), Goat.....	Pieces	6,991	2,411
Spelter.....	Piculs
Sugar, Brown.....	"	3,201	12,805	11,404	45,615	2,942	11,766	6,113	24,452
" White.....	"	2,156	10,780	1,311	6,556	840	4,199	124	745
Turmeric.....	"	434	1,331	1,447	4,340	3,920	11,760	2,067	6,201
Wax, White.....	"	8,576	274,432	7,297	233,517	8,679	850,383	11,507	1,035,647
Wool, Sheep's.....	"	10,138	70,964	10,957	109,571	18,178	145,425	14,833	118,661

No. 3.

NATIVE IMPORTS, 1892-1901.

1896.		1897.		1898.		1899.		1900.		1901.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Hk. 7h.</i>		<i>Hk. 7h.</i>		<i>Hk. 7h.</i>		<i>Hk. 7h.</i>		<i>Hk. 7h.</i>		<i>Hk. 7h.</i>
2,210	3,978	1,966	3,538	2,322	4,179	2,670	4,806	1,823	3,281	574	1,148
112	3,584	130	4,160	133	4,256	124	3,968	142	4,544	129	4,415
176	5,808	264	8,712	121	3,993	39	1,287	218	7,194	225	7,425
5,725	125,377	6,231	116,479	5,303	103,262	6,061	116,299	9,421	166,704	8,026	167,820
118	7,080	243	14,580	102	6,120	41	2,460	97	4,850	230	11,500
1,284	3,210	852	2,230	1,510	3,775	1,683	8,415	1,860	9,300	1,364	9,548
6,009	48,072	4,864	32,912	2,443	19,544	4,913	39,304	3,126	25,008	3,521	56,336
533	11,132	660	12,255	602	10,860	223	4,750	467	10,640	157	2,365
111	3,996	58	2,088	36	1,296	148	5,328	292	10,512	341	12,276
29,224	438,360	78,559	1,178,385	55,213	828,195	41,502	539,526	2,071	24,852	1,958	27,412
2,396	35,940	3,940	39,400	1,339	13,390	1,134	17,010	2,662	47,916	2,449	44,082
1,243,022	50,753	1,246,180	49,670	865,919	38,235	1,014,249	44,117	1,027,225	49,118	1,445,689	70,256
2,469	12,359	3,486	17,485	2,943	14,645	3,752	18,748	5,549	28,645	4,052	21,160
3,092	92,760	4,274	128,220	1,651	49,530	808	19,392	2,048	40,960	2,881	63,382
1,047	15,705	1,687	25,305	1,228	18,420	748	11,220	1,180	17,700	1,631	24,465
45	7,200	59	11,760	24	4,838	22	4,400	48	9,600	61	12,200
12,867	102,936	13,860	110,880	10,836	86,648	9,505	76,040	2,361	18,888	13,528	108,224
3,709	44,508	1,986	23,812	2,272	27,264	2,994	59,880	5,615	140,375	3,387	60,946
402	2,412	918	5,508	720	4,320	622	3,732	942	5,652	470	2,820
24,890	17,715	38,054	21,913	31,196	25,182	28,163	23,447	31,177	33,004	32,840	36,021
63	925	35	916	35	2,235	74	1,841	20	512	28	700
...	...	16,923	84,615	3,527	17,635	7,632	60,056	4,973	39,784	8,900	71,020
1,581	23,715	1,352	20,280	1,095	16,425	1,414	28,280	1,247	19,952	988	39,520
...	558,586	...	724,648	...	701,367	...	750,859	...	544,357	...	806,148
52,516	492,338	52,304	490,350	48,336	453,150	41,968	655,750	31,977	499,641	46,848	878,400
5,260	68,380	12,456	186,840	8,288	124,320	11,278	169,170	10,116	121,392	9,292	130,668
7,299	1,459,976	9,376	1,875,252	6,184	1,236,850	12,006	3,001,420	7,914	1,978,505	12,460	3,114,963
1,076	268,885	1,108	276,928	1,604	320,762	2,815	1,013,342	4,805	1,681,743	3,721	1,339,459
105	12,554	141	16,894	123	14,796	61	7,610	71	8,216	338	40,099
75,204	14,172	106,607	21,611	122,765	25,140	25,390	5,147	88,669	18,725	103,708	23,954
1,261	31,525	1,511	37,775	985	24,625	1,248	31,200	925	23,125	1,232	30,800
40	3,600	56	5,040	64	5,760	11	935	52	4,420	92	7,820
841	7,569	1,730	15,570	1,042	9,378	2,548	20,384	1,909	15,272	2,602	20,816
12,297	9,229	12,250	8,784	10,062	6,716	8,884	5,086	15,915	10,579	17,558	13,052
506	8,096	656	10,496	381	6,096	370	5,920	516	8,256	590	8,850
4,156	83,120	6,817	136,340	9,631	192,620	8,209	205,225	6,848	171,200	5,821	145,585
76	377	1,178	5,906	1,634	9,272	1,468	7,335	1,351	6,730	1,199	5,971
376	17,422	345	16,134	232	10,924	369	17,967	176	8,526	433	20,600
2,671	6,451	2,539	7,690	1,807	6,149	3,148	14,146	2,206	10,466	1,901	8,984
...	...	83	19,920	8	1,920	15	3,600	6	1,800	47	14,100
3,096	681,120	4,799	1,055,780	3,003	660,660	5,942	1,307,240	3,745	823,900	5,767	1,268,740
517	43,945	1,034	87,890	552	46,920	546	46,410	223	18,955	674	57,290
807	20,175	526	13,150	515	12,875	945	33,075	838	29,230	868	29,680
7,826	196,168	5,432	136,274	6,592	164,966	7,317	178,678	8,594	214,507	11,474	293,925
700	348,370	770	391,515	503	197,400	591	271,800	490	232,830	94,769	495,460
55,190	27,711	1,086	543	3,863	1,937	26,993	17,279	69,806	34,903	162,168	80,962
...	...	1,247	7,482	5,469	32,814	8,209	82,090	1,560	15,600	784	5,488
10,975	39,510	646	2,325	1,141	4,107	10,040	30,123	2,629	9,202	3,417	13,668
746	4,584	1,582	9,492	1,364	8,184	1,877	13,139	322	2,254	28	196
6,690	20,070	4,008	12,024	10,939	32,817	15,385	46,155	8,641	25,923	9,415	28,245
9,294	799,284	9,713	836,318	9,783	841,338	17,160	1,475,760	10,239	573,384	10,795	604,520
21,465	171,720	24,448	195,584	18,987	151,896	6,716	67,160	13,363	133,630	16,484	164,840

APPENDIX

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF THE PRINCIPAL

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1892.		1893.		1894.		1895.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Almonds.....	Piculs	...	Hk. 7h	...	Hk. 7h	...	Hk. 7h	...	Hk. 7h
Arsenic.....	"
Bristles.....	"	295	4,495	841	16,251	1,082	23,806
Charcoal.....	"	697	329	602	4,143
Cloth, Native, and Nankeens.....	"	5	185	3	111	6	241	5	152
Coal.....	"	14,284	4,257	10,937	3,255
Coir.....	"
Copper, Tribute.....	"	10,300	185,400	10,300	185,400	5,150	92,700	15,033	270,602
Cotton, Raw.....	"	308	2,156	36	252	68	683	35	425
Feathers, Duck, Fowl, etc.....	"	407	2,035	133	878	160	798	173	966
Fungus.....	"	790	11,063	127	1,519	126	1,885	123	1,841
Hemp.....	"	7,947	55,631	7,701	53,910	7,963	55,738	7,223	50,560
Hides, Cow and Buffalo.....	"	29	438	4	56	49	437
Lampblack.....	"	127	3,180	63	1,585	18	450	58	1,331
Medicines.....	Value
Nutgalls.....	Piculs	3	29	370	3,701	60	784	190	2,475
Rice, Duty Free.....	"
Silk, Raw, White.....	"	10	2,570	14	3,375	16	3,674
" Yellow.....	"	121	24,190	100	19,966	147	29,334
" Refuse.....	"	43	851	1	36
" Cocoons, Refuse.....	"	1	33	12	320
Piece Goods and Pongees.....	"	14	1,192	25	15,010	2	562
Skins (Furs), Goat.....	Pieces	2,200	240
Spelter, Tribute.....	Piculs	8,000	36,000
Tallow, Vegetable.....	"	3,966	23,798	4,883	29,296	4,264	23,880	4,366	24,448
Varnish.....	"	1,059	31,779	1,150	34,501	1,177	41,206	1,486	44,582
Wax, White, Tribute.....	"	330	26,400
Wood, Coffin.....	Pieces	102	960	36	340	78	1,020	37	240

APPENDIX

REVENUE COLLECTION.

	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.
Import Duty.....	Hk. 7h m. c. c.	Hk. 7h m. c. c.	Hk. 7h m. c. c.	Hk. 7h m. c. c.
Export	226.2.6.0	85.6.8.7	15.6.4.9	2.0.0.0
Coast Trade Duty.....	7,249.1.5.6	7,655.3.8.5	8,528.7.2.6	7,687.0.1.4
Opium Duty.....	15.2.9.3	25.8.6.0	11.4.6.0	...
Likin.....	104,380.0.2.5	104,979.6.8.8	227,530.3.5.0	461,446.6.2.5
Tonnage Dues.....	236.2.0.0	257.5.0.0
Transit Dues, Inwards.....	6,178.7.1.0	5,516.1.1.5	7,860.8.8.9	3,016.9.4.5
" Outwards.....
TOTAL.....	Hk. 7h	118,285.6.4.4	118,520.2.3.5	243,947.0.7.4
				472,152.5.8.4

* Gross receipts, the deficit in the Yangtze Coast Trade Deposit Account.

No. 4.

NATIVE EXPORTS, 1892-1901.

1896.		1897.		1898.		1899.		1900.		1901.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
...	Hk. 7h	...	Hk. 7h	...	Hk. 7h	...	Hk. 7h	...	Hk. 7h	...	Hk. 7h
...	4	84	11	231	52	1,820
...	207	1,656	50	400
621	18,102	348	12,445	436	14,250	85	2,318	581	15,756	187	3,234
580	253	1,019	554	903	455	1,098	609
9	324	15	540	12	432	25	900	1	36
588	175	2,251	536	2,706	10,824	9,509	2,830	2,772	1,109
2,590	7,770	1,733	5,199	833	2,499	193	579	104	312	66	198
15,450	278,100	10,300	185,400	10,300	185,400	5,150	92,700	5,105	92,700	10,300	206,000
81	1,215	22	330	124	1,860	194	2,522	1,153	13,836	2,654	37,156
172	860	121	604	114	573	197	987	89	441	118	590
185	5,550	283	8,490	400	12,000	346	8,304	276	5,520	1,244	27,368
7,215	50,505	6,809	47,663	6,282	43,974	7,087	56,696	5,076	40,608	9,466	75,628
1,168	14,016	2,126	25,512	6,158	73,896	7,831	156,620	6,233	155,825	3,798	68,364
18	450	46	1,146	198	4,826	291	6,312	338	8,361	292	7,360
...	7,888	...	14,176	...	21,166	...	27,150	...	15,193	...	17,448
103	1,339	686	8,918	2,246	29,198	3,303	49,545	7,037	84,444	3,480	48,720
...	5,190	10,380	60,796	121,592	45,901	137,493
...	...	1	240	15	4,500
...	...	72	15,840	28	6,160	115	25,300	11	2,620	69	15,180
...	1	35	13	455
...	24	610	68	1,657	169	4,171
...	1	545
...	...	17,964	4,760	34,748	8,864	70,405	27,990	84,670	33,832	112,708	55,379
...
3,137	15,685	1,520	7,600	3,711	18,555	8,825	52,950	6,640	39,840	10,747	75,229
1,325	39,750	1,488	44,640	1,525	45,750	2,082	62,460	1,804	54,120	2,382	71,460
...	...	200	17,200	200	17,200	200	17,200
34	260	138	1,203	154	865	78	880	93	717	30	310

No. 5.

1892-1901.

1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Hk. 7h m. c. c.	Hk. 7h m. c. c.	Hk. 7h m. c. c.	Hk. 7h m. c. c.	Hk. 7h m. c. c.	Hk. 7h m. c. c.
23.3.4.0	56.1.3.1	8.5.0.0	575.0.6.0	1,342.5.2.6	1,302.1.0.7
8,211.9.2.0	8,985.3.3.8	12,871.7.5.8	17,309.8.4.1	16,448.3.4.0	19,966.7.8.4
20.2.2.2	34.1.0.2	9.0.6.2	3,537.1.1.5	581,931.8.8.1	848,204.5.1.7
331,560.3.7.5	419,837.1.7.5	311,658.1.5.0	593,875.7.0.0
192.0.0.0	156.4.0.0	...	14.4.0.0
...	278.4.0.0	...
388.6.9.8	190.8.8.1	84.2.1.9	164.5.9.5	375.7.6.3	231.8.7.8
...
340,396.5.5.5	429,260.0.2.7	324,631.6.8.9	615,476.7.1.1*	600,376.9.1.0	869,705.2.8.6

* amounting to Hk. 7h 35,832.6.6.8, not having been deducted.

SHASI.

REPORT, 1896-1901.

In compiling this Report, I have been at some disadvantage, owing to the fact that the archives of this office were totally destroyed during a riot which took place at Shasi three years ago.

(a.) The following are the more important occurrences connected with the history of this port during the period to be reviewed:—

The Opening of the Port to Foreign Trade.—Shasi became a Treaty port on 1st October 1896, in pursuance of a stipulation contained in the first subsection of Article VI of the Treaty of Peace between Japan and China, signed at Shimonoseki on 17th April 1895, by which it was provided that the port "shall be opened to the trade, residence, industries, and manufactures of Japanese subjects, under the same conditions, and with the same privileges and facilities, as exist at the present open cities, towns, and ports of China." This meant, *de facto*, that nationals of other Treaty Powers should share equally in these rights. Previous to that time the place had been one of the so-called Yangtze Stages, or "Ports of Call," in accordance with Section III of the Chefoo Convention, signed on 13th September 1876, which stipulated that "steamers shall be allowed to touch for the purpose of landing or shipping passengers or goods, but in all instances by means of Native boats only, and subject to the regulations in force affecting Native trade."

Though steamers called from time to time during what may thus be called the transitional state of Shasi with regard to Foreign intercourse, Imports were trifling, and no Native produce was shipped hence during the whole of the period 1876-95; nor may it be said that during the time since the port was opened things have very rapidly taken another turn. The quantities of goods arriving and departing in steamers during the greater part of the period under review have been a comparatively small fraction of the whole bulk of the trade. There has, however, of late been a marked improvement in this respect, and, though conditions are still very far from being satisfactory, it is not altogether unreasonable to expect that better prospects are in store in the future.

The question has often been raised as to what considerations may have influenced the Japanese Government in asking for the opening of the port. The answer to this, I suppose, is partly supplied by taking into account the excellent means of communication by inland waterways which Shasi possesses in nearly all directions, entitling it to become the distributing centre of the western parts of Hupeh and Hunan. Not only has it the command of the Yangtze up and down stream, but it is also connected by a network of canals with most of the more

important cities and towns of the above-named provinces. Foremost amongst these waterways ranks the Pien-ho (便河), a canal which furnishes a "short cut" between Shasi and Hankow, *vid* Tun-k'ou (沌口) and Hsin-t'an-k'ou (新灘口), two points on the Yangtze above Hanyang, 10 and 60 miles, respectively, from Hankow. Of these two branches, the latter is navigable, under ordinary circumstances, all the year round, whilst the former affords a route that is only available during the summer months. By either way the distance to Hankow is considerably shortened, being about 80 to 100 miles less than following the circuitous course of the Yangtze. Another canal leads from Shasi to the Han River at Ta-tsé-k'ou (大澤口), a distance of 60 miles. It is much used in travelling to and from Hankow; for a considerable saving in time takes place by following this route, instead of that furnished by the Yangtze, or even by the Pien-ho. Several waterways connect the Tungting Lake with this port, the most important one being the Ou-ch'ih (藕池) canal, which leaves the Yangtze about 40 miles below Shasi and is navigable throughout the year. Another much-used route, which, however, is only available during the summer months, is the T'ai-p'ing (太平) canal, which branches off from the Yangtze about 10 miles above this port. The canals just mentioned afford an easy communication between Shasi and the towns of Western Hunan, such as Li-chou (澧州), Yung-ting-hsien (永定縣), Ch'ang-té-fu (常德府), and Ch'én-chou-fu (辰州府). Though some of these places are apparently much more easily reached from Hankow *vid* Yochow and the Tungting Lake, junks, owing to the difficult navigation on the latter, prefer the route *vid* Shasi and one or other of the canals in question, which makes the distance to be completed a considerably longer one. Another important channel of communication is the Chü-ho (沮河), a tributary of the Yangtze, entering it about 5 *li* above Shasi, and connecting this town with Ho-yung (河溶) and Tang-yang-hsien (當陽縣), two large marts in the Cotton and Silk districts. It also furnishes the way to the Coal mines, situated in the hills bordering the plain on the north side of the main river. Still higher up the Yangtze, the Ch'ing-chiang (清江) may be mentioned, which flows through several of the districts of Hupeh on the south side of the Yangtze, and terminates at I-tu (宜都), about 50 miles above Shasi. Some further examples of the manifold waterways at the disposal of the trade of the port could easily be adduced; but leaving out of the question and excluding any intention on the part of the Japanese Government to develop the commercial capabilities of Shasi, there was, I am given to understand, at the time of opening the port, an idea that Cotton industries on Foreign lines might be successfully introduced at this spot. No doubt the conditions for such an undertaking are, for more than one reason, favourable. As chief inducements in this direction, the following may be mentioned: (1°) the plains of Hupeh and adjacent parts of Hunan constitute one of the chief Cotton districts of the Empire; (2°) the transport of the raw material from the fields to the manufactories would be comparatively cheap, owing to the excellent waterways in these provinces; (3°) there is an ample supply of Coal, which can be bought at a low price; and (4°) labour could be hired at an exceptionally low rate, owing to the cheap conditions of livelihood prevailing in this part of China. However, as some of the Cotton Cloth mills and spinning companies, started years ago at Shanghai and other places, have not been very successful up to the present, it is not likely that, for some time to come, money will be invested in similar enterprises at Shasi.

The Riot of May 1898.—As this occurrence is fully treated under (k.), I refrain from making any remarks upon it under this section of the Report.

The Establishment of a Japanese Settlement.—The year 1898 is also noticeable on account of the Japanese Government having obtained a Settlement at this port. Negotiations to that effect had been going on for some time, but had led to no definite results, as some of the conditions insisted on by Japan were rejected by China. At last an agreement was arrived at between the Japanese Consul at this port and the Chinese local authorities, which was signed on 18th August 1898, and afterwards approved of by the respective Governments. The more important clauses of this agreement are given in translation below:—

- (1°) The Japanese Settlement at Shasi begins 216.5 *chang* below the Yang-ma-t'ou (洋碼頭), or Foreign landing-stage, in front of the Custom House, and extends along the bank of the river, in a straight line, for 380 *chang*, the first 80 *chang* of it having a depth of 80 *chang* and the rest a depth of 120 *chung*, making a total of 42,400 square *chang*, or about 700 Chinese *mou*.
- (2°) The site of any other Settlement conceded to a Foreign nation at this port has to be further down the river than the one now granted to Japan.
- (3°) The control of the roads and police is vested in the Japanese Consul.
- (4°) The cost of building a bund is to be borne in equal proportions by the Japanese and Chinese Governments.
- (5°) The price of land during the first year after the signing of the agreement will be \$100 for first, \$80 for second, and \$50 for third class of land per *mou*. During the four following years prices will be raised \$5 for each class per year; so that prices for the fifth year will amount to \$120, \$100, and \$70, for first, second, and third class of land, respectively. Any land not disposed of by that time will be put up to auction at a future date, but may not be sold at cheaper rates than those given for the fifth year.
- (6°) The classification of the land will be fixed by the Japanese Consul, in concert with the Chinese authorities.
- (7°) A land tax of 1,000 cash per *mou* is to be paid annually to the Chinese authorities, but no other taxes may be levied by them.
- (8°) The price of ground to be appropriated for roads and other public works is fixed at \$20, \$16, and \$10, for first, second, and third class of land per *mou*, respectively, and the land so used is to be exempted from land tax.
- (9°) Chinese or nationals of other Foreign countries than Japan are not allowed to acquire land in the Settlement; they may, however, reside there and carry on business.
- (10°) The Japanese Consul has the right to levy a tax on vessels anchored off the Settlement.
- (11°) After consulting with the Commissioner of Customs on the matter, jetties may be built and hulks may be moored in such a way as not to interfere with the navigation of the port.

- (12°.) No powder, explosives, or any other easily inflammable material may be brought into the Settlement without the permission of the Japanese Consul.
- (13°.) A Mixed Court, adopting the rules of the one at Shanghai, will be established, for the settlement of cases arising between Chinese and Japanese subjects.
- (14°.) Any privileges granted hereafter to nationals of Foreign countries shall equally extend to Japanese subjects.

So far, nothing has been done to the land allotted as a Settlement, except putting up the boundary stones. The site requires filling up 6 to 8 feet above its present level, in order to place it beyond the reach of the ordinary summer floods, and a solid stone bund is needed to protect it against the wash of the river, which is gradually carrying away large portions of the shore. It is stated that the holding-ground for vessels, opposite to the Settlement is much better than further up the river, where vessels are moored at present, and which is generally acknowledged to be an exceedingly bad anchorage. Up to the present, very few of the plots have been sold—the purchasers of one of them being the Osaka Shosen Kaisha.

(b.) As stated already, steamers have hitherto taken but a small share in the carrying trade of the port. In this connexion, it has to be remembered that competition on the part of these vessels is, so to speak, impossible, as far as the trade between here and Chungking is concerned, which forms the most important branch of the business at this port. Of course, goods could be sent by steamer from here to Ichang and be forwarded the rest of the voyage in Szechwan junks; but this would involve transshipment, and be attended by considerable risk and additional expenses at the latter port. Moreover, there is always an ample supply of Szechwan junks waiting at Shasi, ready to take cargoes up to Chungking at almost any rate; so that steamers would have to be content with a minimum of freight that would not pay expenses. This abundance of Native shipping is the result of an enormous trade in Szechwan Salt between the ports on the Upper Yangtze and Shasi, which absorbs a far greater carrying capacity than is used for the goods sent up on the return voyage. Thus, Szechwan junks find it often extremely difficult to procure a charter at Shasi on their homeward trip, and not a few of them are obliged to proceed from here to Ichang in ballast, seeking to secure cargo at that port. As Salt is not allowed to be shipped by steamers, these vessels are therefore, under all circumstances, debarred from any competition in this part of the trade, whilst Opium and other goods derived from Chungking are sent here by junks, for the same reasons that make it desirable to do so in the case of cargoes bound upward. Junks have therefore met with no competition whatever in the carrying of goods between this port and Szechwan, and hardly a package of cargo has passed through this office destined for Ichang. But apart from this, Native vessels have also succeeded pretty well in holding their own in another branch of the traffic, viz., that with Hankow. This is owing to the excellent means of communication between the two places furnished by the Pien-ho, a canal mentioned already under (a.), by which the great bulk of the goods is transported in Native boats. The advantages that this route offers are briefly stated as follows: (1°.) the distance by the Pien-ho is a good deal less than by the river, there is thus no great loss of time involved in conveying the goods by junks, nor is this kind of craft exposed to any risk in plying on a canal; (2°.) the boats used may be

temporarily turned into warehouses for either the receiving or the disposing of the cargoes they are carrying, which often means a considerable saving of expense in the way of godown rent, etc., particularly in through trade; (3°.) the comparatively high freights on goods forwarded by steamer leave a wide margin to Native junk-owners, so that there is no difficulty in meeting the wishes of shippers in this respect. It is, therefore, only at times when navigation on the Pien-ho becomes impossible, either for want of water in the canal or from an excess of it, which makes traffic to a certain extent dangerous and impracticable, that steamers touching the port have been a decided boon to the trade of the place; for then the latter took up the work which junks were unable to perform, and thus prevented a total stoppage of trade with down-river ports. This state of affairs existed, for instance, for the greater part of last year, and has frequently occurred since the time the port was opened to Foreign trade, as may be seen from some of the previous Reports emanating from this office.

The following table shows the values of the goods carried in steamers between here and Hankow since the port was opened to Foreign trade; it is apparent that these figures are practically identical with those published in the Annual Returns giving the total trade of the port for each year, the small differences representing the value of the goods transported by steamers between here and Ichang:—

1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
<i>Hk. Tn</i> 42,114	<i>Hk. Tn</i> 314,043	<i>Hk. Tn</i> 168,878	<i>Hk. Tn</i> 252,873	<i>Hk. Tn</i> 551,069	<i>Hk. Tn</i> 1,102,413

As during 1896 the port was only open for three months, the figures for that year are of little comparative value. In 1897 a fair start was made, and the result, though falling considerably short of the expectations entertained at the opening of the port, may be deemed fairly satisfactory. The ground thus gained, however, was almost entirely lost in 1898, when the occurrence of the riot previously alluded to exercised a baneful influence on all shipments by steamers, either under the Chinese or Foreign flag. In 1899 a fresh attempt was made on the part of Native merchants to avail themselves of the new mode of conveyance, and though figures did not reach those of 1897, they were considerably in excess of those of 1898; but it was only in 1900, and particularly in 1901, that shipments by steamers assumed somewhat larger dimensions. This, as has been stated already, was mainly due to the Pien-ho having been in an unnavigable state during the greater part of both years, which diverted the traffic from boats on the canal to steamers plying on the Yangtze.

On the whole, it has thus to be admitted that steamers have, hitherto, only to a limited extent been instrumental in developing new commercial relations with other places. This becomes the more regrettable when taking into consideration that, in other respects, the appearance of steamers on this part of the Yangtze has been a decided disadvantage to business at Shasi: by this I refer to the fact that since the opening of Ichang a large portion of the

carrying trade between Hankow and Chungking has ceased to pass through Shasi. The rôle played by the last-named port in this connexion—and to some extent it still acts the part—is readily understood by looking at the map of the routes converging upon Shasi accompanying this Report. It will be seen that the town of Shasi is situated between the Yangtze and the upper reach of the Pien-ho, which, as has been already stated, furnishes a short route between this port and Hankow. As the canal does not connect with the river, cargoes—in order to be transferred from boats on the one to those on the other—have first to be landed and then transported through the town, for a distance of about one-third of a mile, before being reshipped again. The inconvenience thus incurred is, however, small, compared with the advantages to be derived from using this route; for, apart from the facilities already referred to which are offered to shippers by Native craft on the canal, the Szechwan junks are spared the long voyage down to Hankow by the Yangtze, and the still more tedious one of returning against the current of the river. From the time, however, that Ichang became accessible to Foreign trade, goods in steadily increasing quantities have been sent from Hankow by steamer direct to that port, and *vice versa*, with the result that the main bulk of the trade which formerly changed bottom at Shasi is now being transhipped some 90 miles higher up the river. This affords to Szechwan junks the additional advantage of not being obliged to proceed further down stream than is absolutely necessary, or, in other words, these vessels are not forced to leave the sphere of the Upper Yangtze, for the navigation of which they are specially adapted. The consequence is that merchants of Shasi are gradually being deprived of what used to be a large source of profit to them. How far the old way of sending goods between Hankow and Chungking has been abandoned, it is difficult to ascertain, as no reliable statistics are obtainable of the total traffic of the canal; but that very considerable quantities of Foreign goods and Native produce (Steam Factory products) destined for Szechwan still leave Hankow for Chungking by junk is proved by the table of the Hankow Returns giving particulars of goods under Transit Pass. It may safely be assumed that nearly all these goods reached Shasi by the Pien-ho, and were reshipped hence in Szechwan junks for their ultimate destination. A list of some of the more important articles for the years 1896 to 1900 is given below:—

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1896.		1897.		1898.		1899.		1900.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Foreign Cotton Piece Goods.....	Pieces	24,496	58,590	16,776	41,514	11,865	30,913	7,706	18,634	5,810	16,760
Cotton Yarn, English.....	Piculs	510	13,770	313	9,468	168	5,028	108	3,228	18	531
" " Indian.....	"	4,220	91,574	5,974	145,467	6,290	166,810	6,567	173,369	16,797	461,918
" " Japanese.....	"	90	1,800	1,219	31,243	2,465	65,051	3,576	88,148	1,227	31,902
" " Chinese.....	"	3,329	69,970	12,559	326,534	5,234	125,463	10,014	221,329	20,867	492,820
Oil, Kerosene, American.....	Gallons	614,600	67,892	572,030	72,735	211,850	27,570	120,300	15,529	158,650	24,222
" " Russian.....	"	262,050	28,806	837,370	100,700	341,770	41,014	530,470	61,012	701,482	81,416
Seaweed.....	Piculs	17,846	40,152	21,113	50,671	10,209	25,114	23,275	58,420	18,475	45,633
Miscellaneous Goods.....	Value	63,044	...	108,376	64,763	...	68,436	...	95,779
TOTAL.....	Hk. Tn.	435,598	...	886,708	...	551,726	...	708,105	...	1,250,981	...

At first glance, it might appear that during the last few years a considerable increase had taken place in shipments, by the canal, of Foreign goods and those of Chinese origin already alluded to; this, however, has not been the case, for the figures in the table are fully explained by the fact that a greater per-centage of goods is now leaving under Transit Pass than in previous years, and of this the traffic on the canal has taken a proportionate share. It remains to be seen how far the raising of the Import Tariff, which involves a corresponding increase of Transit Dues on goods leaving for the interior, will affect the traffic in question. As it means an increased amount to be paid on these goods, viz., the difference between half the amount of the old and new rates, the effect may be that henceforth a greater proportion of the trade between Hankow and Chungking will be diverted from Native craft to steamers.

The following table enumerates the more important articles of Import that passed through this office during the period under review:—

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1896.*	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
COTTON AND WOOLLEN GOODS.							
Cotton Piece Goods.....	Pieces	100	2,020	130	4,393	24,639	107,527
" Yarn.....	Piculs	6	615	372	1,745	7,068	5,829
Woollen Piece Goods.....	Pieces	...	66	72	28	1,376	2,749
METALS.							
Iron Wire.....	Piculs	178	633
" Nails.....	"	107	338
SUNDRIES.							
Dyes, Aniline.....	Val., Hk. Tn.	442	1,630	5,542
Fans, Paper.....	Pieces	...	105,084	105,262	51,570	90,790	241,889
Oil, Kerosene.....	Gallons	...	19,500	...	3,180	60,060	48,920
Pepper, Black.....	Piculs	...	31	47	82	163	303
Sandalwood.....	"	...	209	136	165	429	492
Seaweed.....	"	89	2,208	999	952	2,200	6,225
Silk Piece Goods.....	"	...	54	25	29	32	95
Sugar, Brown.....	"	...	193	269
" White and Refined.....	"	736	8,834	5,111	2,550	4,805	10,610
" Candy.....	"	...	482	323	139	364	570

* Three months.

Cotton Piece Goods.—These contribute by far the greatest portion to the value of our Imports. A detailed statement of the two most important items, viz., Grey and White Shirtings, is given below:—

—	1896.*	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>
Grey Shirtings.....	60	1,660	50	2,713	7,280	50,997
White "	180	40	1,330	7,478	26,260

* Three months.

Amongst other Cotton Piece Goods, Prints and Figured Italians deserve to be noticed. Manufacturers at home appear to have made a more careful study of the Chinese market than hitherto, and are now meeting, to a larger extent, the tastes of the people in pattern, etc. A speciality frequently seen in the shops here is a Black Cotton Italian, 30 inches by 30 yards, stamped with various kinds of silver stars; it is made in Great Britain, and is much appreciated by the female part of the population, on account of its smart appearance.

It may be approximately estimated that, of the Cotton fabrics passed through this office during the past years, 75 per cent. were of British origin, the rest coming from Germany, the United States, and Japan.

Cotton Yarn.—Practically, only that of Japanese manufacture is imported here, it having superseded the Indian Yarn completely. A few lots of Wuchang-spun Yarn arrived last year, and found a ready sale at remunerative prices.

Woollen Goods.—The imports have been trifling. About 50 per cent. of these goods came from Great Britain; the rest were derived from Germany and Russia.

Metals.—Under this heading two articles, both of American origin, may be noticed, viz., Iron Wire, imported for making fish-hooks and binding wooden tubs, etc., and Galvanized Iron Nails, used by Native builders.

Sundries.—The most important items were:—Aniline Dyes: those imported here were all of German origin. Kerosene Oil: Devos's is preferred, and has to a great extent ousted the Russian product; a small quantity of Sumatra Oil was brought here on trial, but remained on hand for some time, although the price was lower than that of the American article. Silk and Cotton Lace: though little of it passes through this office, a good deal of it is met with in the shops, mostly arriving by Native boats *vid* the canal; British manufacturers are now competing with those of Germany in this line, "Made in Britain" and "Made in Germany" both appearing on the cards the Lace is wrapped on. Llama Braid: that seen here is all of German manufacture, and is largely used for trimming women's clothing. Clocks and Watches: of those arriving at this port, the former are mostly of Japanese origin, whilst the latter are made in Switzerland or Austria. Seaweed: both Long and Cut is imported, and all comes from Japan. Silk Piece Goods: those reaching this port are for the greater part of Hangchow and Nanking manufacture,

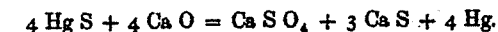
a large part arriving through the Imperial Post Office. Sugar: a considerable proportion of the White Sugar imported here was refined at Hongkong. The rest of the Imports call for no special comment.

The following table gives the figures of the more important articles of Export that have passed through this office since it was opened:—

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1896.*	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Cinnabar.....	<i>Piculs</i>	3	17
Cloth, Native.....	"	12	21	1	30	424	525
Cotton, Raw.....	"	1,915
Fungus.....	"	...	30	60	13	39	618
Hides, Cow and Buffalo.....	"	7	...	93	101
Medicines.....	"	7	145	512	78	44	230
Quicksilver.....	"	14
Nutgalls.....	"	387	3,174	1,244	494	965	1,248
Seed, Sesamum.....	"	1,333
Silk, Raw, Yellow.....	"	109	430	172	405	515	680
Tallow, Vegetable.....	"	579	316	466	2,851	2,387	7,006
Walnuts.....	"	...	30	...	103	1,003	2,105
Wax, White.....	"	...	55	303	385	89	121
" Yellow.....	"	...	66	39	13	...	52

* Three months.

Cinnabar and Quicksilver.—Small quantities of both have been brought here from the mines in Kweichow worked by Chinese, and exported hence by steamer to Hankow. From what I have been able to ascertain, the Native smelters extract the Quicksilver from its ore, viz., Cinnabar, or Sulphide of Mercury, by a process that, as far as its chemical changes are concerned, is identical with the one used in the Palatinate in former times. The ore is mixed with a portion of the gangue, which invariably contains a large amount of limestone, and is heated in a rude sort of retort, whereupon the Mercury Sulphide is decomposed by the lime formed from the limestone and the Quicksilver distils out. The reaction is shown by the following equation:—



It is interesting to note that Cinnabar (丹) is mentioned in the "Tribute of Yü" (禹貢), about B.C. 2,000, as being one of the articles contributed to the Imperial Court from this part of China, or what used to be the old province of Kingchow, the confines of which included a part of the mountainous districts of the modern province of Kweichow.

Native Cloth.—This is a well-woven, stout kind of Cloth, made up in two sizes—*ta-pu* (大布), 13 yards by 15 inches, and *hsiao-pu* (小布), 10 yards by 1 foot,—each of three grades. The annual export to Szechwan is estimated to average 150,000 piculs. The little

that passes through this office comes mostly from Kingchow, and is of the smaller size, done up in parcels of 10 pieces, 15 parcels forming a package weighing 98 catties. Nearly all of it is dyed dark, indigo blue, and is sent to Hankow for re-exportation to Canton.

Raw Cotton.—This article forms another important staple of the trade with Szechwan; the export to there is supposed to amount to from 100,000 to 120,000 piculs per annum. Of late, however, shipments seem to have declined considerably, owing to the low prices of the commodity ruling in the western markets. Large quantities of Cotton Yarn, Foreign as well as Chinese, are now being imported into Chungking, and have to a considerable extent replaced the raw material formerly derived from this province. A small quantity left this port by steamer last season for Hankow, where a sudden demand for Cotton had sprung up on the part of the government mills at Wuchang, the floods during the summer months having partly destroyed the crops further down the valley of the Yangtze.

Hides.—Most of those exported are bought up by agents deputed by some of the Foreign firms at Hankow, to be reshipped to Europe.

Medicines.—What goes under this denomination is mostly derived from Szechwan. The quantities are too small to deserve further comment.

Sesamum Seed.—This is a product of this district, and was passed through the office last season for the first time since the opening of the port. The amount shipped was intended for re-exportation to Foreign markets.

Yellow Raw Silk.—This article has also been shipped of late in increasing quantities, and a part of it, I have been told, was destined for Europe.

Vegetable Tallow.—There are five large manufactories at this port, called *cha-fang* (榨坊) by the Chinese, for obtaining Tallow (皮油) and Oil (籽油) from the seeds of the *wu-chiu* (烏桕) tree. The average yield of a picul of the seeds, the price of which is about 2,500 cash, is given as follows:—

0.24 picul Tallow:	Cash.
at 12,000 cash per picul	2,880
0.12 picul Oil:	
at 7,000 cash per picul	840
0.18 picul Oil-cake (sold as fertiliser):	
at 800 cash per picul	144
0.18 picul Tallow-cake (used for fuel in working).	
0.15 picul Carbonised Shells (sold as fuel):	
at 600 cash per picul	90
TOTAL	Cash 3,954

This leaves a surplus of 1,454 cash for working expenses and profit. The Tallow, which is known in the Hankow market as "Kinchow," has a melting-point of about 115° F. It has for some years past found a ready market in Foreign countries, where it is employed in the manufacture of soap and candles. Its comparative cheapness entitles it to a great many other

applications where animal fats have hitherto been used, particularly if it could be freed from the poisonous properties which the Chinese say it possesses. Another quality, called *Mu-yu* (木油), and quoted as "Mong-yu" in the Foreign Reports, is produced in the manufactories referred to by not separating the Oil from the Tallow. The mixture thus obtained, which has a melting-point of about 95° F., is largely used by the Chinese for making a cheap sort of candle. Its price is about 7,500 cash per picul. A third kind of Vegetable Tallow, of a greenish hue, known here as *Ch'i-yu* (漆油), and called "Ki-yu" (green) at Hankow, is brought from the neighbouring districts in broken pieces, packed up in bamboo baskets, and sells at about 7,200 cash per picul. Its melting-point is about 132° F., which is considerably higher than that of the other qualities. It is extensively used in the manufacture of the better kinds of Chinese candles. From what I have been told, it appears likewise to be the product of a tree, called the *ch'i-shu* (漆樹), or varnish tree.

(c.) The following table gives particulars of the Revenue collected during the period under review:—

YEAR.	IMPORT (exclusive of Opium).	EXPORT (exclusive of Opium).	COAST TRADE (exclusive of Opium).	OPIUM (Import, Ex- port, and Coast Trade).	TONNAGE.	TRANSIT.	OPIUM LIKIN.	TOTAL.
	Hk. Tm. c.c.	Hk. Tm. c.c.	Hk. Tm. c.c.	Hk. Tm. c.c.	Hk. Tm. c.c.	Hk. Tm. c.c.	Hk. Tm. c.c.	Hk. Tm. c.c.
1896 *.....	...	1,184.3.2.3	592.1.6.2	1,776.4.8.5
1897.....	...	5,809.6.6.8	2,556.2.5.2	275.0.5.3	...	8,640.9.7.3
1898.....	...	2,757.0.6.7	1,226.5.7.2	56.4.4.8	...	4,040.0.8.7
1899.....	17.3.2.3	4,841.0.1.9	383.5.1.4	42.8.5.0	...	5,284.7.0.6
1900.....	88.4.8.7	5,713.4.7.6	656.0.1.0	163.0.0.1	...	6,620.9.7.4
1901.....	718.0.9.9	10,243.2.6.7	1,396.0.3.1	...	0.2.0.0	425.6.0.8	...	12,783.2.0.5

* Three months.

Most of the goods of Foreign origin that were imported here had paid Duty at Shanghai and arrived under Exemption Certificate. The small amounts of Import Duties that appear in our table were mainly collected on Machinery, etc., for the mines of the Anglo-French concession in Kweichow province.

As seen from the table, Export Duties form by far the greatest part of the collection. The per-centages of Duties contributed by the principal articles leaving the port are given below:—

Native Cloth	4.98 per cent.
Raw Cotton	2.20 "
Nutgalls	12.30 "
Yellow Raw Silk	52.95 "
Vegetable Tallow	13.36 "
Walnuts	3.15 "
White Wax	4.68 "

The apparent falling off in Coast Trade Duties is due to the circumstance that, in accordance with the new Yangtze Regulations, Native goods, since 1st April 1899, have paid Inward Duties at the place of destination, instead of at the port of shipment. The more important goods of Native origin imported since then participated in the payment of Coast Trade Duties as follows:—

Paper Fans	3.44 per cent.
Silk Piece Goods	38.76 "
White Sugar	28.52 "

The Transit Dues on goods conveyed into the interior were distributed as shown below:—

Gray Shirtings	6.44 per cent.
Cotton Yarn	5.54 "
Kerosene Oil	21.08 "
Seaweed	60.23 "

No Outward Transit Dues have ever been collected here.

(d.) The quantity of Foreign Opium imported here is stated by local merchants to amount to about 50 piculs per annum. None of it is passed through this office; it arrives mostly from Hankow under Transit Certificate, in assorted packages. As the Native article is considerably cheaper than that of Foreign growth, it is not to be expected that the latter will ever make much headway in this part of China.

The following data regarding Opium produced in this province, together with some other particulars in connexion with it, are derived from Mr. NEUMANN'S Report, amplified and brought up to date by myself:—

Production.—In the province of Hupeh the poppy is grown in four prefectures and in one *chou*, namely, in the I-ch'ang prefecture (宜昌府) in the west, in the Shih-nan prefecture (施南府) in the south-west, in the Hsiang-yang prefecture (襄陽府) in the north, in the Yün-yang prefecture (鄖陽府) in the north-west, and in Ching-mên-chou (荊門州) in the north. The total production in these four prefectures and one *chou*, taking the average of a good crop, is estimated at 8,600 to 10,600 piculs a year, divided as follows:—

<i>I-ch'ang prefecture: 3,600 to 4,300 piculs:—</i>		<i>Piculs.</i>
Tung-hu-hsien (東湖縣)		200-300
Kuei-chou (歸州)		700-800
Pa-tung-hsien (巴東縣)		800-900
Hsing-shan-hsien (興山縣)		600-700
Ch'ang-yang-hsien (長陽縣)		500-600
Ch'ang-lo-hsien (長樂縣)		500-600
Ho-fêng-chou (鶴峯州)		300-400
<i>Shih-nan prefecture: 3,000 to 3,600 piculs:—</i>		
En-shih-hsien (恩施縣)		500-600
Hsüan-en-hsien (宣恩縣)		600-700
Lai-fêng-hsien (來鳳縣)		400-500
Hsien-fêng-hsien (咸豐縣)		400-500
Li-ch'uan-hsien (利川縣)		600-700
Chien-shih-hsien (建始縣)		500-600

<i>Hsiang-yang prefecture: 900 to 1,600 piculs:—</i>		<i>Piculs.</i>
Hsiang-yang-hsien (襄陽縣)		100-200
I-ch'êng-hsien (宜城縣)		100-200
Nan-chang-hsien (南漳縣)		200-300
Tsao-yang-hsien (棗陽縣)		100-200
Ku-ch'êng-hsien (穀城縣)		200-300
Kuang-hua-hsien (光化縣)		100-200
Chün-chou (均州)		100-200

<i>Yün-yang prefecture: 900 piculs:—</i>		
Yün-hsien (鄖縣)		100
Fang-hsien (房縣)		200
Chu-shan-hsien (竹山縣)		100
Pao-kang-hsien (保康縣)		150
Yün-hsi-hsien (鄖西縣)		200
Chu-ch'i-hsien (竹谿縣)		150

<i>Ching-mên-chou: 200 piculs:—</i>		
Tang-yang-hsien (當陽縣)		100
Yüan-an-hsien (遠安縣)		100

The Opium is made into cakes, the weights of which vary between 3 and 5 catties.

Taxation.—No special tax is levied on land on which the poppy is grown—such land, like other arable land, is simply made to pay the ordinary land tax (錢糧). Opium consumed in the places of production does not pay any tax; but if it be sent to other places for sale, the following taxes are levied in this province:—

	<i>Per Picul.</i>
Duty (正稅)	<i>K'u-p'ing T'ia</i> 36.0.0.0
Huo-hao (火耗)	" 5.6.4.0
Lo-ti Likin (落地釐金)	<i>Tiao</i> 14.400
Shan-hou Ching-fei (善後經費)	" 14.400

In calculating these taxes, 100 catties actual weight are only counted as 55 catties, on which the proportionate amount of the taxes has to be paid. I am informed that this special arrangement as to weight in the calculation of the taxes has the sanction of the higher provincial authorities. The total amounts of taxes realised annually on Opium grown in this province are said to be as follows:—

Duty	<i>K'u-p'ing T'ia</i> 39,600
Huo-hao	" 6,240
Lo-ti Likin	<i>Tiao</i> 16,000
Shan-hou Ching-fei	" 16,000

or, say, a total of *K'u-p'ing T'ia* 71,500.

On payment of the taxes as specified above, the Opium is labelled, and the owner receives two receipts, one for the Duty and *Huo-hao*, and the other for the *Lo-ti Likin* and *Shan-hou*

Ching-fei, the presentation of these documents at any barrier exempting the drug from any further taxation whilst in this province—except in this town of Shasi. All Native Opium which is to be sold here, whether of this province or of other provinces, and for which the taxes have been paid elsewhere, must, before it can pass the barriers, pay 3,840 cash per picul to the local Opium-tax Office, called the Ching-sha Yao-t'u Shui-wu Chü (荆沙藥土稅務局). This tax is known as *Kuan-yung* (官用). After payment of the tax the Opium is specially labelled, and it is then released. The amount realised annually out of this special tax is stated to be T\$ 8,000. When Hupeh-grown Opium is presented at a barrier for the payment of the taxes, each cake being labelled, sundry cakes may be packed into one parcel, which is then covered by a wrapper (封條) on the outside.

Consumption.—Of the total quantity of Opium grown in this province, about eight-tenths, or, say, 8,000 piculs, are consumed in the districts of production or are clandestinely brought into circulation; and about two-tenths, or, say, 2,000 piculs, after payment of the taxes, are sent for sale to other parts of the province—out of these 2,000 piculs, about 500 piculs are sold to Honan and Shensi.

Routes.—(1) *I-ch'ang Prefecture*.—Opium produced in Tung-hu-hsien, Kuei-chou, Pa-tung-hsien, and Hsing-shan-hsien, and destined for sale elsewhere, is sent by boats plying on the Yangtze to Ichang. Opium produced in Ch'ang-yang-hsien, Ch'ang-lo-hsien, and Ho-feng-chou is sent overland to Shasi. The places passed on the way are Yü-yang-kuan (漁陽關), Ch'a-tien-tz'ü (茶店子), Pai-yang (白洋), Yang-ch'i (洋漢), Tung-shih (重市), and Chiang-k'ou (江口).

(2) *Shih-nan Prefecture*.—Opium produced in Ên-shih-hsien, Li-ch'uan-hsien, and Chien-shih-hsien is sent overland to Yeh-san-kuan (野三關) and Tai-ch'i-k'ou (黛溪口), and thence by boat to Ichang or Shasi. Opium produced in Hsian-ên-hsien, Lai-fêng-hsien, and Hsien-fêng-hsien is sent overland to Ho-fêng-chou, Ch'ang-lo-hsien, to Yü-yang-kuan and Ch'a-tien-tz'ü, and thence by boat to Ichang and Shasi; or from Yü-yang-kuan the land route is further followed, leading by way of Pai-yang, Yang-ch'i, Tung-shih, and Chiang-k'ou to Shasi.

(3) *Hsiang-yang Prefecture*.—The Opium which is produced in this prefecture and not consumed locally is sent overland to Honan, into the Nan-yang prefecture (南陽府).

(4) *Yün-yang Prefecture*.—Opium produced in this prefecture and not consumed locally is sent overland to Shensi, into the Shang district (商州) and the Hsing-an prefecture (興安府).

Opium from other Provinces.—Opium from Szechwan, Yunnan, and Kweichow enters the Hupeh province to the extent of 15,000 to 20,000 piculs; of this quantity, about 12,000 to 15,000 piculs come from Szechwan, 1,500 to 2,500 piculs from Yunnan, and 1,500 to 2,500 piculs from Kweichow. Of the total arrivals, about one-half passes in transit and the rest is sold in this province. Almost all the Opium from Szechwan, Yunnan, and Kweichow is sent in boats from Chungking; if it be sent overland, it goes to Yeh-san-kuan or Lai-fêng, in the south-west of this province.

Opium from Szechwan, before leaving the province, has paid Export Duty and *Lo-ti* Likin at the rates of T\$ 20 and T\$ 4.80, respectively, per picul, and on arrival in this province, if destined for sale in Hupeh, pays—

	Per Picul.
Duty	K'u-p'ing T\$ 36.000
Huo-hao	" 5.640
Lo-ti Likin	Tiao 14.400
Shan-hou Ching-fei	" 14.400

—100 catties counting as 55 catties, as is done in the calculation of the taxes of the Hupeh-grown drug. I have not been able to ascertain what taxes Yunnan or Kweichow Opium pays before leaving its respective province, but on arrival in Hupeh, if destined for sale in this province, the same taxes as detailed above for Szechwan Opium are levied. The Opium is labelled, and the same documents as for Hupeh-grown Opium are issued in proof of payment of the taxes.

Opium from Szechwan, Yunnan, or Kweichow sent in transit through the Hupeh province pays a tax called *Kuo-ching* (過境), or *Hsia-lu Ching-fei* (峽路經費), of K'u-p'ing T\$ 12 per picul; but in calculating the amount to be paid, 120 catties actual weight count only as 100 catties. The important taxing stations for this transit tax are Yeh-san-kuan, where it is called *Kuo-ching*, and Lai-fêng, at which place it is known as *Hsia-lu Ching-fei*. A receipt for the payment of this transit tax is given, but no labels are issued. Parcels of Opium sent in transit through the province are accompanied by a deputy, or guard, from the station where the Transit Dues have been paid to the frontier of the province of Hupeh. The expenses of the deputy, or guard, accompanying such parcels of Opium are defrayed by the Hupeh Opium Duty and Likin Office (湖北土藥稅釐總局).

Prices.—The kinds and names of the Native drug dealt in at this port, with their respective values, are detailed below:—

	VALUE.
	Per Picul.
Yunnan: <i>Nan-t'u</i> (南土)	Shasi T\$ 432-480
Kweichow: <i>Kuei-chou-t'u</i> (貴州土)	" 352
Szechwan varieties:	
Nan-pa-ch'ang (南壩場)	Shasi T\$ 400-428
Lo-chi (洛碛)	" 368-384
Ch'êng-tu (成都)	" 320
Chien-chou (簡州)	" 320
Ch'ang-shou (長壽)	" 348
Fou-chou (涪州)	" 348
K'ai-hsien (開縣)	" 304
Yün-yang (雲陽)	" 304
Fu-shan (巫山)	" 288
Ch'ung-ch'ing (重慶)	" 304

in the act of sully the property of his employers. From the early hours of the 9th the co-provincials of the beaten man assembled in large numbers in front of the China Merchants office. No effort was spared on the part of the agent of the company to calm the crowd: payment for medicines and of doctor's fees and payment of a compensation to the coolie were offered; but all in vain. The greater part of the day passed with these negotiations. The leaders of the crowd were not to be satisfied; they declared that they wanted a riot, and no proposal would calm their ire. Suddenly, about half past 5 in the afternoon, the crowd appeared in front of the Custom House and wanted to forcibly enter the Examination Shed. The Boatman on duty, supported by his comrades, resisted the attempt; but before they could close the gate, a senselessly drunken man was thrown into the Examination Shed, and, corpse-like, he lay on the ground. Whilst this was going on at the eastern end of the town, all the rowdy elements in the streets were summoned to appear on the scene by the beating of gongs. The Boatmen were accused of having killed the drunken man in the Examination Shed, and the fury of the mob, well egged on and fomented by its leaders, presently vented itself in a bold attack on the Customs office premises and the residence of the Commissioner of Customs—a newly-built house in Foreign style, which had only been occupied for nine days,—which was promptly set on fire. Then events followed in rapid succession: fire was set to the Customs boats, to the premises of the China Merchants Company and their hulk, to the office of the Foreign Board, to the Japanese Consulate, to the premises occupied by the Native agents of Messrs. BUTTERFIELD & SWIRE and Messrs. JARDINE, MATHESON, & Co., to some newly-erected Chinese buildings (the property of some wealthy Shasi residents). Very soon all the buildings mentioned were in a blaze; where the flames did not do the work of destruction quickly enough, kerosene oil was used to feed the conflagration. By midnight property worth Ta 100,000 had been wantonly destroyed. On the morning of the 10th the mob again appeared on the scene, to rob and plunder whatever might be useful hereafter. What has just been described happened at the eastern end of the town. The residents of the Swedish Mission left their premises (situated at some distance to the west of the Custom House) at midnight, and found shelter in a boat, awaiting the arrival of the Ichang steamer, bound for Hankow, which was due in the morning. Once the Foreign occupants of the mission house had left, the mob entered the premises, looting them to a certain extent, but otherwise leaving them intact. The building of the Roman Catholic Mission was promptly guarded by Chinese Christians, and no harm was done to it. All the members of the Foreign community who were in the port on the 9th May were—with one exception, the Reverend Father MAURITIUS ROBERT—driven out of Shasi by this riot. On the day of the riot, and for the following three days, the local authorities seemed paralysed. The arrival of troops from Ichang and Wuchang aroused them from their coma; arrests were made, and four of the ringleaders were summarily decapitated, their heads being exhibited off the principal jetty of the port, in the vicinity of which they had done so much mischief. Other culprits were subsequently sentenced to terms of imprisonment for periods varying according to their culpability in these unfortunate occurrences. As an immediate result of the riot, a military camp was established at the eastern end of the town; and when the Foreign residents returned, after a lapse of several weeks, special precautions were taken for their protection."

There is no doubt that the local officials were wanting in circumspection at the beginning of the affair: through their neglect to quell the disturbance at an early hour, it assumed dimensions beyond their power to control. Unfortunately, the Taotai at Kingchow had been misinformed as to the gravity of the event, and thus refrained from taking any immediate action. His intervention in proper time would most probably have averted the whole occurrence.

(l.) to (n.).

(o.) The number of *hsiu-ts'ai* allowed to the province of Hupeh, at each of the two examinations taking place every three years, is 1,545 (prefecture of Kingchow, 161), and the number of *chü-jên* at every triennial examination is 60.

The number of inhabitants is said to be 30,000,000, which, taking into account the area of the province, viz., 70,450 square miles, would give a density of population about twice that of France, which appears to be a rather high figure, considering the many lakes and other uninhabitable tracts of the country.

(p.) Were it not for the embankments, there is no doubt that a great part of the plains of Hupeh and Hunan would form, at most times, a continuous expanse of water, the area of which, including the Tungting Lake and the numerous smaller sheets of water lying to the north of it, might easily exceed three times that of the Netherlands. All round Shasi, and, I am told, in many places further down stream, the ground on both banks of the Yangtze lies considerably lower than the level of the river during the greater part of the year. The question has occurred to me, how these vast tracts of country, that at a very remote period already formed part of one of the most flourishing provinces of the Empire, could have been brought under cultivation, if the conditions in those times were at all similar to what they are at present. The construction of embankments, under these circumstances, would have been exceedingly difficult, and practically amounted to carrying them right into an enormous stretch of lagoons and swamps, or perhaps a shallow lake, without much prospect of draining the country at the back of these works, unless they were at once extended for hundreds of *li* down stream to reach a sufficiently low point to effect drainage by the natural slope of the country. This, however, does not appear to have been done; for I find in the records on the subject, contained in the "Chronicle of Kingchow," etc., that the embankments were raised in comparatively small sections, and at different times, extending over hundreds of years. It is therefore to be inferred that the level of the Yangtze must in olden times have been a good deal lower than it is now, and that the plain in question was only occasionally, and during periods of exceptionally high floods, exposed to inundations, but otherwise was considerably above the ordinary reach of the waters. This is borne out, to a certain extent, by the views expressed in a number of Memorials sent to, and Rescripts received from, the Emperor CH'EN LUNG, during the 53rd year of whose reign (1788) the Yangtze burst the famous embankment called the Wan-ch'êng-t'i—of which mention has been made already under (h.),—thereby causing a large portion of the prefecture of Kingchow to be inundated. The unexpectedness of the event was followed at the time by an enormous loss of life and property, and the frightful scenes that were witnessed in consequence of this catastrophe are still living in many stories current amongst the people. It was then pointed out by one of the memorialists, the Grand Secretary

A KUEI (阿桂), that formerly there had been eight different channels between the Yangtze and the Tungting Lake, which, branching off above and below Shasi, on the right bank of the river, had drained a large portion of its water into that great basin. These channels, however, had been gradually silting up, and were nearly closed by the sediment carried into them from the Yangtze, so that now only one of them, viz., that at Hu-tu (虎渡), furnished a free passage for the water. This and the forming of a large sandbank opposite Shasi, by which the bed of the river had in latter years been considerably narrowed, were responsible for the calamity referred to. From the above statement, it appears that the eight channels in question, which are still more or less in existence—and of which two, viz., the T'ai-p'ing canal, branching off at Hu-tu (see above), and the Ou-ch'ih canal, further down the river, were pointed out under (a.),—once played an important part in draining off the water of the Yangtze on its entering the plains of Hupeh and Hunan provinces, collectively known as the Hukwang (湖廣), i.e., "Lake District." The channels were therefore instrumental in keeping the level of the river within a certain height, and an effective clearing of their mouths ensured, to a great extent, the safety of a large part of the territory through which the Yangtze takes its sinuous course. In this connexion, it has occurred to me that the channels spoken of may possibly be the "nine rivers" mentioned in the "Tribute of YÜ," when alluding to the labours of YÜ in regulating the waters of this part of the Empire, and that his work, in this particular instance, mainly consisted in providing a more effective drainage of the Yangtze into the Tungting Lake. By deepening the eight channels in question—to which, as a glance at the map will show, might easily be added a ninth from the network of waterways intersecting the country in all directions—immense benefit was likely to accrue to the whole region subject to the inundations of the Great River. As may be seen by referring to LEGGE's translation of the "Shu King,"* the whereabouts of these "nine rivers" have formed the subject of much discussion amongst Chinese scholars of all times, and, so far, no satisfactory conclusion has been arrived at. I now venture the hypothesis that the channels referred to by the Grand Secretary A KUEI are probably identical with the "nine rivers" that have puzzled the minds of these investigators.

As to the old province of Kingchow, of which, as stated already, the present prefecture of that name once formed an important part, it is said in the "Tribute of YÜ" that its soil consisted of a soft mire, a description which holds good to the present day of the greater part of it, and is but the natural outcome of its alluvial origin. Though the fields at that time were only assessed as being "the average of the lowest class," its contribution of revenue amounted to "the lowest of the highest class," thus showing that the condition of the inhabitants in those early days was a comparatively prosperous one. The country is now generally considered to be one of the most fertile parts of the Empire, and, particularly where it is not subject to overflows or is not too low for constant cultivation, the crops yielded may rival those of the most productive districts of China. There is, as a rule, quite enough moisture during the summer months, and in winter, though the fields are covered with snow, they are not exposed to much frost or other vicissitudes of the northern winter. In this way, abundant crops of beans are obtained early in spring, the plants having gone through their blossoming period in January and February, when the snow was still lying on some parts of the ground. Besides all the ordinary

* Bk. I, ch. vii, pp. 47-49.

Chinese grains and foodstuffs generally, the products are cotton, indigo, etc.; and of industries, those of silk, cloth, and vegetable tallow deserve special mention.

As in the Netherlands, to which this part of Hupeh may fitly be compared with regard to its general physical character, the canals afford the means of communication in many parts of the country, and boats are principally resorted to for transport: only where these do not exist, animals—mostly donkeys—are employed for carrying purposes.

(g.) The appended notes on Native shipping have been compiled by Mr. Assistant Examiner PEGGE.

The Native craft trading to Shasi may be classed under the three following distinct headings: I. *Ch'uan Ch'uan* (川船); II. *Nan Ch'uan* (南船); III. *Hua Ch'uan* (划船).

I. "*Ch'uan Ch'uan*" (various Sorts of Szechwan-built Junks).—There are 10 types of these seen here, most of them carrying on board the master and his family. To the credit of both owners and crews, the vessels are in first-rate repair, and generally look clean and well kept; the excellent wood preserver *t'ung-yu* (桐油), "wood oil," being plentiful in the districts frequented by this craft, in great part accounts for this. Cargoes upward bound consist chiefly of raw cotton, Native cloth, and salt fish, together with various kinds of Foreign (repacked) merchandise; whilst salt, opium, medicines, sugar, etc., are brought here on the downward trip. Two round voyages a year are considered good. As a rule, little gain is made on the up journey, the expenses for trackers, pilotage, etc., absorbing the profits. The down-trip expenses are estimated at one-fifth to one-fourth of those of the upward journey. These junks are divided into eight *pang* (幫), or flotillas, according to the districts they belong to.

II. "*Nan Ch'uan*," or *Hunan Junks*.—Of these there are seventeen types. They travel between Shasi and Hunan ports, mostly *via* the Ou-ch'ih and T'ai-p'ing canals (*vide* (a.)). These canals lead into a perfect network of waterways, connecting with the Tungting Lake, the Li-shui (澧水), the Yuan-shui (沅水), the Tzu-shui (資水), and the Hsiang-shui (湘水). Rice is the principal commodity brought to the port, and generally belongs to the junk-owner, who either sells it retail from the vessel or in bulk to the shops. On their return voyage, Szechwan cargo, sesamum seed cake, and Foreign merchandise are taken.

III. "*Hua Ch'uan*," or *Vessels belonging to Hupeh*.—They trade on the Yangtze as far as Ichang and Hankow, and also ply on some of the canals which connect with the Han River, thus reaching the northern parts of the province. Their cargoes consist of Native produce taken to, and brought from, the neighbouring districts, and they generally serve as passenger-boats in this part of the country.

Excepting the cases mentioned in the table below, it has been found impossible to obtain even approximate figures of freights, profits made, etc.

The number of vessels lost is said to be comparatively small, and no risks whatever are covered by insurance, such a proceeding being unknown at this place.

There are no building-yards for junks, which, considering that wood is brought here in great quantities from Hunan and other provinces, is a rather remarkable fact.

NATIVE CRAFT TRADING TO SHASI.

NAME	Capacity.	No. of Crew.	Cargo ordinarily carried.	REMARKS.
I. Ch'uan Ch'uan.				
1. Ma-yang-tzū 麻陽子	Piculs. 600 to 1,000	8 to 12	Export: raw cotton, nankeens, salt fish, etc. Import: salt, etc.	One of the principal kinds of Szechwan junks seen here. Average cost of building, 1,200 cash per picul. Employed in the Szechwan trade.
2. Ma-ch'iao-wei 麻雀尾	500 to 1,200	8 to 12	" "	Distinguished from the above-mentioned boat by the shape of the stern, which resembles the tail of a sparrow when spread out.
3. Mao-yū-ch'iu 毛魚鰲	1,000	8 to 12	" "	This junk has not the oval or whale-shaped sides of the two foregoing kinds. Engaged in the Szechwan trade.
4. San-ts'ang ch'uan 三槍船	200 to 400	6	Passengers and general cargo.	A junk of light draught, hired for the conveyance of officials and their belongings. Plies on the waterways of this vicinity. Average freight on full cargo to Szechwan, 72 300.
5. K'ua-tzū ch'uan 跨子船	300 to 500	6	" "	Sometimes styled <i>ts'ang-k'ua-tzū</i> (四槍跨子), from having four watertight compartments. More of a house-boat than the others.
6. Jao-pai-tzū 槳排子	250 to 400	6	Import: coal and salt....	A strongly-built junk, with a wide beam; the stern somewhat resembles a Foreign boat with a keel. The coal carried comes from the districts up river, i.e., Wu-shan (巫山), K'uei-chou (夔州), Ch'ang-yang (長陽), and I-tu (宜都). Freight on coal from above Ichang, 120 cash per picul.
7. P'a-wo-tzū 扒窩子	200 to 480	4 to 6	Export: raw cotton, salt fish, nankeens, etc. Import: salt, medicines, etc.	A one-masted junk; sides straight up and down. From centre to stern covered by oiled bamboo waterproof mats.
8. Ch'en-po-tzū 辰撥子	250	4 or 5	" "	A long, narrow boat, with large rudder and oval sides. Covered with oiled mats.
9. Shao-ma-yang 梢麻陽	200 to 300	4 or 5	" "	A medium-sized junk.
10. Wu-pan 五板	20 to 100	10 to 18	Import: opium, medicines, white wax, etc.	A light, roughly-built boat, of 10 to 18 oars, seldom seen here; generally in attendance on large junks, conveying trackers. With fair wind the journey to Chungking can be made in 20 days.
II. Nan Ch'uan.				
1. Ching-shih-ch'iu ch'uan 津市級船	30 to 150	3 or 4	Import: rice, joss-stick cakes, etc.	A long, narrow, covered-in sailing-boat, with a large rudder. Cost of building, about 2,000 cash per picul. The cargo, as a rule, belongs to the boat-owner, and is sold here by him.
2. Ts'ang-chiang-ch'iu ch'uan 倉港級船	50 to 140	3 to 5	" "	A similar boat to the above, but distinguished by the different build of the stern. Freight on rice shipped at Li-chou (澧州), 120 cash per picul. Generally returns to Hunan empty.

NAME	Capacity.	No. of Crew.	Cargo ordinarily carried.	REMARKS.
3. Liu-yang-ch'iu ch'uan 瀏陽級船	Piculs. 60 to 300	3 to 5	Export and re-export: sesamum seed cake, sugar, etc. Import: rice and split bamboo.	Trades to various places in Hunan.
4. Wu-chiang-tzū 烏江子	40 to 200	2 to 4	Export: beans and sesamum seed cake. Import: rice and paper.	A rather prettily shaped boat, with angular side; well kept, and a good sailing craft. The rice carried is mostly bought and sold by the boat-owner.
5. Tao-p'a-tzū 倒扒子	80 to 100	2 to 4	Import: rice.....	A well-made boat, with a foot-wide ledge round the oval covering. Freight on rice, 125 cash per picul. Employed in the Changsha and T'ao-yüan (桃源) trade.
6. Ya-shao-hua-tzū 鴨鵝划子	80 to 200	3 or 4	Export: salt.....	An open-stern boat, from Lin-hsiang-hsien (臨湘縣). Generally arrives here with copper cash for the purchase of Szechwan salt. Freight, 200 cash per bag weighing about 2 piculs.
7. Ching-shih po ch'uan 津市駁船	150 to 300	4 to 6	Export: general cargo. Import: rice.	A medium-sized junk of this class, fully laden, receives about 25 strings of cash from Ching-shih (津市).
8. Hêng-chou hsiao-po 衡州小駁	250	5	Export: red enamelled woodware and sundries. Import: rice, coal, and fruit.	A strong, roughly-made junk, principally employed in carrying anthracite coal from I-tu (宜都), and gas coal from Hêng-chou (衡州).
9. T'ao-yüan po-tzū 桃源駁子	40 to 220	3 or 4	Export: general cargo. Import: rice and joss-stick cakes.	This junk has a long, slanting stern, and is covered by waterproof oiled mats. The larger kinds carry the owner's family on board. The rice generally comes from Changsha, and is bought and sold by the master.
10. Ch'en-chou hsiao-po 郴州小駁	400	4 to 6	Export: general cargo. Import: rice and coal.	This junk, loaded with rice, makes the journey from Ch'en-chou (郴州) to Shasi in about 20 days. Freight, 100 cash per picul.
11. Pa-kan 巴桿	300	4	Passengers.....	A house-boat, principally used by officials and their families. Well furnished with sleeping accommodation, table, chairs, etc.
12. Ch'ang ch'uan 長船	40 to 60	2	General cargo.....	A boat trading to Yochow.
13. Ch'en-t'iao-tzū 辰條子	600 to 800	8	Export: nankeens, raw cotton, etc. Import: medicines, salt, coir, etc.	A large junk, built at Ch'en-chou (辰州), employed in the Szechwan trade. Cost of building, 1,200 cash per picul.
14. Lung-yang p'iao-tzū 龍陽飄子	50	2	Export: sugar, etc. Import: rice, etc.	A boat easily distinguished, owing to the singular appearance of its stern, which slants from the water 8 to 10 feet.
15. Sha-wo-tzū 沙窩子	50 to 400	2 to 6	Export: medicines. Import: iron and rice.	A one-masted junk, with half-open stern, square, wood covering, and 1-foot ledge all round; mostly from Hêng-shan (衡山), a month's journey from here.
16. Hsiao-ma-yang 小麻陽	40 to 80	2 or 3	General cargo.....	A handy, light-draught boat, from Ch'ang-t'á (常德). May be hired for 3,000 or 4,000 cash to make the journey to Ch'ang-t'á, a distance of nearly 200 miles.

NAME	Capacity.	No. of Crew.	Cargo ordinarily carried.	REMARKS.
17. Ch'an-tzu.....	<i>Piculs.</i> 300 to 400	3 or 4	Salt.....	An open-stern junk, built at Pa-ling-hsien (巴陵縣). Plies between Yochow and Shasi.
III. Hua Ch'uan.				
1. Ching-pang hua-tzu... 荆幫划子	30 to 200	2 to 4	General cargo.....	Junks from Shih-shou (石首), Ho-hsüeh (郝穴), Hsin-ch'ang (荊場), T'u-chia-hsiang (徐家巷), Ma-chia-chai (馬家寨), Tou-hu-ti (陡湖隄), Chiang-k'ou (江口), etc. This build of boat is seen on the Yangtze everywhere; it has an open stern, and square covering or house.
2. Lo-shan ya-shao..... 螺山鴨梢	150 to 200	3 or 4	Export: salt. Import: raw cotton and copper cash.	A two-masted junk, from Lo-shan (螺山) and Ching-ho-k'ou (荊河口). Generally hired by the trip. Freight, 10,000 to 12,000 cash for the upward and 8,000 cash for the downward journey.
3. Huang-pei pien-tzu... 黃陂扁子	50 to 120	2 or 3	Export: vegetable tallow, woodware, etc. Import: cotton, hemp, and general Foreign goods.	Chiefly seen on the Pien-ho canal. Trades to Hankow and places on the Han River. Freight on full cargo from Hankow, about 15,000 cash.
4. T'o-pien-tzu..... 拖扁子	50 to 150	2 or 3	Import: opium, sugar, and general cargo.	The boat most frequently seen on the Pien-ho.
5. Ya-shao..... 鴨梢	50 to 150	2 or 3	Export and import: general cargo and passengers.	Distinguished from the foregoing by the different make of the stern.
6. Man-kan..... 滿杆	120 to 150	3	Passengers.....	A junk almost entirely employed in passenger traffic. The fare to Hankow is 800 cash without food, the journey taking, as a rule, five or six days.
7. Hsiang-yang pien-tzu... 襄陽扁子	180	4	Export and import: general cargo and passengers.	A light-draught boat, mostly employed for the canal trade.
8. I-tu hsia-hua-tzu... 宜都峽划子	250	3 or 4	Import: coal.....	Brings anthracite coal from I-tu and beyond Ichang. Freight, 80 cash per picul. A strong, roughly-made junk, well suited to this trade.
9. Ho-jung jao-pai-tzu... 河溶棧擺子	60	3	Import: coal and charcoal	A long, narrow boat, built at Ho-jung (河溶). Freight on charcoal to Shasi, 120 cash per picul.
10. I-tu jao-pai-tzu..... 宜都棧擺子	120	3 or 4	" "	A two-masted, mat-covered junk. Freight on coal, 80 to 100 cash per picul.
11. I-tu ya-shao..... 義渡鴨梢	180	3 or 4	Passengers.....	A public ferry-boat, made locally, and controlled by the president of the 13 guilds. The fixed fare for crossing the river is 3 cash.
12. Po ch'uan..... 駁船	300 to 400	3	General cargo.....	Lighters or cargo-boats, made locally and at Ch'ang-t'ê. They are partitioned into several watertight compartments, and loose-planked on a level with the gunwale.

(r.) The remarks under this section have been contributed by Mr. F. L. BESSELL, 4th Assistant, B, of this office.

NATIVE BANKING AGENCIES.—Shasi possesses four distinct kinds of business houses engaged in banking transactions, viz, the Hui Tui Chuang (匯兌莊), issuers of drafts; the Chieh Tai Chuang (借貸莊), money-lenders; the Ch'ien Chuang (錢莊), money-changers; and the Tang P'u (當舖), issuers of cash notes.

Hui Tui Chuang.—There are 13 of these institutions here, colloquially termed *Hui-piao-hao* (匯票號), all owned by Shansi men, and divided into two classes: those belonging to Ping-yao-hsien (平遙縣) men, called *Ping-pang* (平幫), of which there are 10; and those of the Ch'i-hsien (祁縣) men, the *Ch'i-pang* (祁幫), three in number. Drafts are issued on all the provincial capitals, as well as on most of the important towns in the Empire, at commission rates ranging from 2 to 6 per cent.

Chieh Tai Chuang.—These establishments, six in number, known as *Fang-piao-hao* (放票號), are in the hands of Shansi men hailing from Chieh-hsiu-hsien (介休縣). Advances of from T'ia 5,000 to T'ia 30,000 at a time are made, interest being charged at an average rate of 12 per cent. per annum, whilst money placed with them on deposit yields 8 per cent. per annum.

Ch'ien Chuang.—Previous to the year 1898 there were 73 of these cash shops carrying on business at this port, and issuing notes of 1,000, 5,000, and 10,000 cash denomination. The local riot, occurring at a time when the financial position of the Shasi market was being severely strained by the disturbed state consequent upon the YÜ MAN-tzu rebellion in Szechwan, caused 50 of them to become insolvent. These bankrupt firms redeemed their notes from the public at from 20 to nearly 100 per cent. discount. At the present time there are 55 cash shops functioning here, and of these, 6 may be considered of importance. They no longer issue notes, the public faith in them in this respect having been lost. A committee of four men, appointed annually from among the managers of the six above-mentioned shops, meets every afternoon at 3 o'clock, at the Bankers Guild (銀財神殿), for the purpose of fixing the cash exchange rate that shall rule for the ensuing 24 hours.

I give below the yearly average rate of exchange for the Haikwan tael from 1892 to 1901:—

1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Cash. 1,630	Cash. 1,600	Cash. 1,645	Cash. 1,274	Cash. 1,292	Cash. 1,288	Cash. 1,370	Cash. 1,274	Cash. 1,333	Cash. 1,312

Tang P'u.—With the full consent of the Magistrate, and possessing the implicit confidence of the public, nine of the local pawnshops have since 1898 issued notes of 1,000 cash denomination. In March 1901 a futile attempt was made to replace these pawnshop notes by those of the Wuchang government, and for this purpose a branch of the Provincial Cash Office (湖北官錢局) was opened here, and the pawnshops were ordered to call in and cancel

all their notes within five months. Now, inasmuch as the government notes, besides being payable at the particular branch office issuing them, can be cashed equally well at the Wuchang head office, both the official and mercantile classes at once saw that, by collecting and sending them, the former to Wuchang, remitting government moneys, and the latter to Hankow, discharging trade obligations, commissions on drafts or freightage on shipments of copper cash could be saved. Consequently, the government notes have never had a chance of freely circulating in Shasi, and the pawnshops continue to issue their own notes.

(e.) There are eight Native postal hong established at Shasi, which, according to the work they perform, may be grouped under three classes:—

- 1°. Hong for the transmission of letters and parcels *overland* to or from any place in the Empire where branch offices or agencies of the firms in question exist. They have fixed dates for outgoing and incoming mails, and the delivery of postal matter is said to be fairly satisfactory. Ordinarily, half the postage is paid in advance and the remainder collected from the addressee; but in certain cases, when the persons concerned are well known to the hong people, no prepayment whatever is asked for. Postage varies, according to the distance, from 12 to 200 cash per letter, the weight of which is immaterial. On registered letters, as a rule, double postage is exacted. In many cases special terms for forwarding letters, etc., are conceded to merchants patronising a certain postal hong, and only half the ordinary postage is charged.
- 2°. Postal hong for the transmission of letters and parcels *by steamer*. Their rules and regulations are similar to those enumerated above.
- 3°. Postal hong for the sole delivery of mail matter, sycee, etc., to and from Hunan and Shansi. They serve for the convenience of local banks, most of which are branch offices of firms established in the aforesaid provinces. Mails are despatched 24 times a year. These hong also provide, at fixed rates, chairs and bearers for travellers.

(t.) Under this heading it may be mentioned that, on the 11th November 1901, as an outcome of, and in accordance with the stipulations of, the Peace Protocol, four stations of the Kingchow Ch'ao Kuan (荆州鈔關)—viz., those situated within a 50-li radius from Shasi, and styled the central, east, west, and north stations, respectively—were placed under the control of the Imperial Maritime Customs at this port.

(u.)

(v.) There are two Protestant missions represented in this part of the province of Hupeh, viz., the American Episcopal Mission and the Swedish Missionary Society. Of these, the former has opened stations at the following places, which are regularly visited from time to time by a Foreign member of the mission, residing at Ichang:—

- 1°. Shasi. A station was founded in 1886, and Native workers have been here since that time. In 1897 a chapel was built, and at a later date a boys and girls day-school was opened. The converts amount to about 150.

- 2°. Chiao-wei (蛟尾), in the department of Ching-mên-chou (荊門州). A chapel was built in 1897, and a Native worker sent there at the time. The converts number nearly 50.
- 3°. Hou-chiang (後港), in the same department. There is no regular chapel as yet, and services are conducted in an ordinary house; but a Native worker has been stationed at the place since 1897. The converts amount to about 30.
- 4°. Sha-yang (沙洋), in the same department. Work was commenced by a Native assistant in 1898, and a chapel is now in course of erection. A school will be opened next year. The number of converts is about 40.

The Swedish Missionary Society has been established at Shasi since 1896. There are five Foreigners—three men and two women—permanently employed, besides one Native worker. A street chapel was built in 1898, and a church in the following year. A boys and girls day-school was opened in 1896. The converts number 25. The mission contemplates extending work to Kingchow next year, and the premises necessary for the purpose have been already bought.

Of Roman Catholic missions, the orders of the Franciscans and Lazarists both possessed stations at Kingchow in the 18th century. During the subsequent persecutions these missions were destroyed and the converts dispersed. Their descendants, however, in many instances, remained faithful to the church, and have formed, in some cases, the nucleus of new Christian communities. In modern times the province of Hupeh has been worked by Franciscans only, and the south-western part of it was in 1890, by Papal Brief, assigned to the Belgian Mission of the aforesaid order, which at present possesses the following stations:—

- 1°. Kingchow. The number of Christians before 1876 was small, and the city was only occasionally visited by a Foreign priest. Afterwards buildings were erected, and the station became the see of a Bishop, who, however, on the opening of Ichang, removed to that town, transferring at the same time the newly-founded seminary. At present, one Foreign priest is in charge of the mission, which possesses a chapel and a cemetery. An orphanage was opened in 1876, where about 1,000 children have been received and brought up, the present number being 150. There is, besides, a hospital, founded in memory of the late Empress ELIZABETH of Austria, which dispenses medicines free of charge to about 10,000 people a year, and is, I hear, to be put shortly under competent medical supervision. The number of converts is about 500.
- 2°. Shasi. The station dates from 1880, but the present buildings, in Foreign style, including a chapel, were only erected in 1895. A Foreign priest is in residence, and the converts amount to nearly 300.
- 3°. The number of Catholics living in various groups scattered throughout the department of Ching-mên-chou is estimated at about 1,400. They are mostly the descendants of converts made during the 18th century, the main body

being at Shih-li-p'u (十里舖), where there are a chapel and dwellings belonging to the mission. Other Christian communities are at Chiao-wei, Sha-yang, etc. These places are worked by a Foreign priest and a Chinese assistant.

- 4°. Another centre is at Chang-chin-ho (張金河), in the lake districts between the Rivers Yangtze and Han, where a chapel and residence were built in 1894. An orphanage has been established, having at present about 80 children. A Native worker is in charge, and the converts number more than 500.
- 5°. In the districts of Kung-an-hsien (公安縣) and Shih-shou-hsien (石首縣), which are both south of Shasi, there are several groups of Catholics, who are under the supervision of a Native priest residing at Tou-hu-ti (斗斛堤), where a small chapel has been erected. The number of these Christians, mostly descendants of the refugees during the times of the persecutions, is nearly 350.
- 6°. At Chien-li-hsien (監利縣), a district to the south-east of Shasi, there are about 500 converts, who are looked after by a Native worker living at the town of Chu-ho (朱河).

(w.) The following provinces and towns are represented by guilds at this port, viz. :—

- (1.) Shansi and Shensi Guild: meeting-place, Chin-lung-ssü (金龍寺).
- (2.) Hunan Guild: meeting-place, Yü-wang-kung (禹王宮).
- (3.) Szechwan Guild: meeting-place, Ch'uan-chu-kung (川主宮).
- (4.) Kiangsu and Chehkiang Guild: meeting-place, Ku-p'ang-hui-kuan (菴廨會館).
- (5.) Hui-chou-fu (Nanhwei) Guild: meeting-place, Hsin-an-shu-yüan (新安書院).
- (6.) Ching-hsien and T'ai-p'ing-hsien (Nanhwei) Guild: meeting-place, Ching-t'ai-hui-kuan (涇太會館).
- (7.) Kiangsi Guild: meeting-place, Wan-shou-kung (萬壽宮).
- (8.) Fukien Guild: meeting-place, T'ien-hou-kung (天后宮).
- (9.) Chiang-ning-fu (Kiangsu) Guild: meeting-place, Chin-ling-hui-kuan (金陵會館).
- (10.) Honan Guild: meeting-place, Chung-chou-hui-kuan (中州會館).
- (11.) Wu-chang-fu (Hupeh) Guild: meeting-place, O-ch'êng-shu-yüan (鄂城書院).
- (12.) Han-yang-fu (Hupeh) Guild: meeting-place, Ch'ing-ch'uan-shu-yüan (晴川書院).
- (13.) Huang-chou-fu (Hupeh) Guild: meeting-place, Ti-chu-kung (帝主宮).
- (14.) An-lu-fu and Ching-mên-chou (Hupeh) Guild: meeting-place, An-ching-shu-yüan (安荊書院).

I am told that the guilds at Shasi owe their origin solely to the initiative of merchants. Each guild selects a headman (會首), who represents the members in dealings with local officials which are of a special kind or affecting the interests of the corporation in question. The headmen of all the guilds, except that of An-lu-fu and Ching-mên-chou, hold frequent meetings at a place called Chan-t'an-an (梅檀菴), where business of a general character and concerning all the guilds is discussed. They nominate amongst themselves a chairman, or president (總會首), who conducts negotiations with the representatives of the government. The number of meetings held at each guild varies from a few to 200 or more a year; thus, for instance, the merchants of the Szechwan Guild assemble about 15 times each month, whilst those of the An-lu-fu and Ching-mên-chou Guild only meet about three times a year. Their funds are derived from (1) interest on moneys and rent on property belonging to the guild; (2) a small tax levied on such goods as the merchants of the guild in question specially deal in; and (3) a monthly subscription paid by the resident members. Most of the guilds are associated with philanthropic undertakings, such as orphanages, asylums, etc., and provide travelling expenses to destitute co-provincials, or pay for the burial of those who die abroad. At most of the guilds one or more priests are permanently engaged, to conduct the worship of the patron of the corporation and to carry out other religious observances.

The Shasi Native traders have no guild of their own, nor are they represented in other towns of the Empire. They possess, however, certain meeting-places, where the dealers in special commodities assemble from time to time. Thus, the dealers in sundry goods and in salt meet at the Ch'ih-ti-kung (赤帝宮); the cotton and cotton cloth dealers, at the Yang-ssü-miao (楊泗廟); the proprietors of cash shops, at the old and new Ch'ien-ts'ai-shên-tien, etc.

(x.) and (y.).

(z.) It has been stated already that the expectations entertained at the opening of the port have, so far, not been realised, and, judging from past experiences, it may safely be asserted that a rapid change for the better will not be witnessed in the immediate future. There is, however, an increasing tendency on the part of Native merchants to avail themselves of steam communication, thus gradually abandoning the old method of forwarding their goods by Native boats on the Pien-ho canal. At present, the comparatively high freights demanded by steamship companies—though considerably below what they used to be some years ago—still form one of the chief reasons why steamers are not patronised to a greater extent by shippers, both here and at Hankow, in the commerce between the two places. Should it be possible to further lower the rates, no doubt a correspondingly larger amount of cargo would fall to the share of these vessels; but I understand that freights have, at present, reached a limit beyond which it would be difficult to make any additional concessions. In this connexion, the towage of cargo-boats by steam-tugs, such as is practised on rivers in Europe and the United States, has been suggested as a cheaper method of transport. The light draught of these vessels would, to a considerable extent, obviate the difficulties of navigation to which larger craft are exposed during the winter and early spring, when the water of the Yangtze is at its lowest; but apart from this, other considerations have to be taken into

account—for instance, whether the many bends of the river would not form a serious check to managing a long line of cargo-boats, and whether the harbour accommodation of this port would be at all suitable for adopting the plan in question.

In conclusion, I beg to acknowledge the assistance I have derived from the various publications, both Consular and Customs, on the trade of this port; and in particular, I am indebted to Mr. W. J. CLENNELL, H.B.M.'s Consul, for permission to reproduce a map which appeared with his Report on Shasi for the year 1897.

C. C. STUHLMANN,

Commissioner of Customs.

CUSTOM HOUSE,

SHASI, 31st December 1901.

YCHOW.

REPORT, 1899-1901.

(a.) Ychow having been opened only 26 months, there is no decennial period to review. Rather, however, than confine myself to relating the chief occurrences at the port and in the province during the short period since the establishment of the Custom House—this being, moreover, the first Report of its kind comprising not only the port but the province as well,—I have thought it of interest to preface it with some disjointed notes on the history of Hunan. I say “disjointed” advisedly, because neither the material at hand nor the time at my disposal have enabled me to write anything but the merest outline of what pertains to the history of the province.

NOTES ON THE HISTORY OF HUNAN.—Ancient Chinese history professes to look upon Hunan as an integral part of the Empire, the Emperor CHUAN HSÜ, B.C. 2514-2436, the last of the “Five Rulers,” being credited with having brought it under his sway. These regions were then inhabited by three distinct clans of savages, from whom the country derived its name, San-miao-kuo (三苗國), i.e., “The Land of Three Aboriginal Tribes.” The task of subjugating these was, however, only commenced in earnest during the reign of YAO, SHUN, and TA YÜ, of semi-mythical fame, B.C. 2357-2197. Emperor SHUN, in particular, conducted several campaigns against the savages, during one of which one of the tribes dwelling in the districts bordered by the Tungting Lake on the west and the present province of Kiangsi on the east is said to have been utterly exterminated.

The process of assimilating or pushing back the original inhabitants of the country, the descendants of whom, in a direct line, are known at the present day as the Yao-hu (獠戶) of the mountainous regions in the south-west of Hunan, or Miao-tzü of Kweichow and other places, has been going on for more than 4,000 years, attended by many fiercely contested combats. Indeed, the last bloody page of the interesting history of the heroic fight for independence of these tribes—the Miao-tzü Rebellion in Kweichow—occurred no more than about 40 years ago.

It is estimated that one-tenth of the population of Hunan still consists of aborigines. They inhabit mountain fastnesses in the south and south-west, which they have strongly barricaded against the Chinese, and where they remain, to all intents and purposes, independent, with habits and manners much as were found among their ancestors thousands of years ago. In the other parts of the province, in the less mountainous regions and along the basins of the principal waterways, the northern invaders have succeeded in obliterating nearly all traces of the original dwellers, partly by absorbing, partly by exterminating them, even to the extent of impressing their language upon the province.

SHUN, while engaged on an expedition against the aborigines in North-western Kwang-tung, succumbed to the hardships he had undergone, after an illness of some duration. In connexion with his death, the touching incident of the suicide of two faithful concubines is related. The two were daughters of SHUN's predecessor YAO, who, not content with bequeathing the throne to him in preference to his own son, had, as a further mark of his esteem, bestowed his two daughters on him in marriage. On hearing of their lord and husband's illness, they hastened to his side; but on arriving at the Tungting Lake, the news of his death reached them. Distracted with grief, they jumped overboard and were drowned. Their bodies were washed up on the small island of Chün-shan (君山), opposite to Yochow, where at the present day a very ancient grave is shown as their burial-place. Temples were also erected in their memory. The incident—more, perhaps, than any other of the many beautiful tales with which this period, the "Golden Age" of China, has been embellished—has touched the Chinese profoundly. Chün-shan has since been reckoned "the most celebrated of all the famous places in Hunan," and travellers passing this way never fail to eulogise the faithfulness of the two concubines. Thus, the poet SU TUNG-P'Ö, in the 11th century, writing an inscription in honour of the celebrated HAN WÊN-KUNG, A.D. 768-824, refers to the death of SHUN and the suicide of the two concubines in the following couplet:—

"He (HAN WÊN-KUNG) journeyed far away to the distant South;
He passed the grave of SHUN and wept over the daughters of YAO."*

Among other incidents during this period, we have the great deluge, in connexion with which there is the famous stone tablet of YÜ, discovered on the top of Chü-lou-shan (釣樓山), one of the Hêng mountains, in this province, purporting to give a record of his labours in subduing the waters. By some writers this tablet has been put forward as a proof of the reality and magnitude of the catastrophe: great doubt, however, is entertained as to its genuineness.

During the reign of the above-mentioned TA YÜ, the region round the Tungting Lake became known as Ching-chou (荊州), giving its name to the present prefecture of Ching-chou,† in Hupeh.

The succeeding dynasties saw the rise and fall of numerous more or less independent states, the principal of which, in these parts, was the Ch'u-kuo (楚國), commencing during the latter half of the Ch'ou dynasty, B.C. 1122-255. The celebrated poet CH'Ü YÜAN, during the 4th century B.C., was a native of Ch'u. He is famous for his elegy, the "Li Sao," which he wrote when in despair at having, owing to the intrigues of rivals, lost the confidence of his Prince, whom he had for years served faithfully as his Minister. The following account of his subsequent suicide, near Changsha, and the origin of the modern Dragon Festival, is borrowed from GILES' "Chinese Literature":—

"Overwhelmed by further disappointments, and sinking still more deeply into disfavour, so that he cared no longer to live, he went forth to the banks of the Mi-lo River. There he met a fisherman, who accosted him, saying, 'Are you not His Excellency the Minister? What has brought you to this pass?' 'The world,' replied CH'Ü YÜAN, 'is foul, and I alone am clean.

* Translation by GILES: "Chinese Literature."

† The "Kingchow" of the Shensi Report.

There they are all drunk, while I alone am sober. So I am dismissed.' 'Ah!' said the fisherman, 'the true sage does not quarrel with his environment, but adapts himself to it. If, as you say, the world is foul, why not leap into the tide and make it clean? If all men are drunk, why not drink with them and teach them to avoid excess?' After some further colloquy, the fisherman rowed away; and CH'Ü YÜAN, clasping a large stone in his arms, plunged into the river and was seen no more. This took place on the 5th of the 5th moon; and ever afterwards the people of Ch'u commemorated the day by an annual festival, when offerings of rice in bamboo tubes were cast into the river as a sacrifice to the spirit of their great hero. Such is the origin of the modern Dragon-boat Festival, which is supposed to be a search for the body of CH'Ü YÜAN."

The Kingdom of Ch'u was conquered by the Ch'in Emperor SHIH HUANG-TI, B.C. 221-209, who reunited the whole of China, and gave to Hunan the name of Chang-sha-chün (長沙郡).

Under Emperor KAO TI, of the Western Han dynasty, B.C. 206-194, Hunan again became a feudal state, under the rule of a Prince residing at Changsha. At the time of the "Three Kingdoms" we find it forming part of the Kingdom of Wu. On the downfall of this kingdom, in the latter half of the 3rd century A.D., Hunan was again incorporated with China proper, relapsing from time to time into semi-independence under various petty rulers.

During the epoch of the "Five Dynasties," in the 10th century A.D., the old name of Ch'u-kuo (楚國) was revived by MA YIN, who established himself in these parts. In after years the name of the province was again several times changed or old names were reassumed.

The first ruler of the Sung dynasty, A.D. 960-976, again brought Hunan into line, and since then these regions have never remained independent for any prolonged period, although they have often been the scene of rebellions and revolts.

During the reign of KUBLAI KHAN, in the 13th century, this province became known, for the first time, as Hunan (湖南), i.e., "South of the Lake," which name it has retained ever since. Under the Mings, however, Hunan together with Hupeh formed the province of Hukwang (湖廣), i.e., "The Extensive Lake Districts," which Emperor K'ANG HSI, of the present dynasty, divided into the two provinces of Hunan and Hupeh, also known as the Liang Hu (兩湖). The literary designation of Hunan is Hsiang (湘), derived from the river of that name.

Of later great historical events, the fighting in connexion with the expulsion of the Mings by the Manchus has had a lasting effect on the province. The upheaval caused an influx of the people from Kiangsi, who in their turn, to some extent, drove the people from Northern Hunan into Szechwan. Hence, the tradition among the people of these parts that they are Kiangsi men, and that the bordering districts of Szechwan contain Hunanese.

During the Taiping Rebellion this province suffered considerably. In the summer of 1852 the rebels invaded the province from Kwangsi, and quickly overran the Hsiang basin. Changsha, thanks mainly to TS'ENG KUO-FAN, who was at the time living at home in mourning for a parent, successfully resisted the onslaught of the Taipings. After a siege of about three months duration, the rebels drew off, moving towards Yochow, which they captured, and Hankow. In 1853 they reappeared, coming this time from Kiangsi, but were eventually repulsed.

On approach of the rebels most of the Imperially appointed officials decamped. When comparative quiet was restored, and the officials came back, they found the provincial government carried on—and well, too—by the gentry. Any attempt to entirely oust them proved disastrous to the officials. Only by co-operating with the gentry could they get hold of the reins again. The system, peculiar to Hunan, of committees or representatives of the gentry acting together with the officials in every branch of public administration has been continued ever since. The gentry, being of the people, keep more in touch and sympathy with them, and act as a check to abuses. For the above reason, and owing to the influence the Hunanese are capable of invoking against unpopular officials, through the numerous Hunanese holding high appointments (see (z.)), the people of this province are said to be among the best governed of any in China.

The armies subsequently engaged in quelling the Rebellion were largely raised in this province, and the success which attended most of their encounters with the rebels, and finally the taking of Nanking by TS'ENG KUO-FAN, mainly assisted by his Hunanese, earned for them a great reputation as fighting men. Hunanese garrisons are for this reason found in many places throughout the Empire.

At the same time this period was remarkable for the number of eminent officials who sprang from this province, and who, the Hunanese being well known to be exceedingly clannish, brought their influence to bear on the politics of the country, and became known as the political factor called the "Hunan Party." The Hunanese, in their own country, are noted for their independence and haughty exclusiveness, not only towards Foreigners, but even to Natives from other provinces; and owing to this attitude, and their successful endeavours to prevent Foreigners entering the province, Hunan earned the name of "The Closed Province."

The persistent demands, however, made by Foreigners for the entry of Hunan finally suggested the wish to the Chinese Government to open a port in this province. Yochow was selected, and voluntarily opened to Foreign trade on the 13th November 1899, with the intention of tapping the trade which ebbs and flows past this, the "Gateway of Hunan." The spot selected by the Chinese Government for forming a cosmopolitan Settlement is at Ch'ang-lin (城陵), 5 miles to the north of Yochow city and only a mile away from the Yangtze. The ground is well raised above flood level, and there is no lack of space. Within the municipal jurisdiction land may be leased, but not sold, thus providing a moderate income for municipal uses, in addition to the Wharfage Dues charged on all cargo passing the Customs. Apart from these moneys, the cost of making and maintaining the Bund, roads, etc., is borne by the Chinese Government. The Government also provides and maintains the police force which has been organised and is now supervised by a Foreign superintendent.

(b.) The trade of the port since its opening has remained infinitesimal. The reasons for this have been exhaustively treated in the annual Trade Reports, and it would serve no purpose to repeat them here.

(c.)

(d.) There are no figures available as to the consumption of Foreign Opium in Hunan, and beyond the statement volunteered by trustworthy Opium merchants, that the consumption of this commodity has, during the last decade or so, decreased 70 per cent., I can throw no

light on the question of how far the trade in Foreign Opium has been affected by the undoubted increase in the production of the Native article. The following gives an account of Native Opium:—

1. PRODUCED IN HUNAN.—Opium is not an important product of Hunan, but small quantities are produced in the districts of Yung-ting (永定縣) and Tzu-li (慈利縣), in Li-chou (澧州), Lung-shan (龍山縣) in Yung-shun-fu (永順府), and Hsin-hua (新化縣) in Pao-ching-fu (寶慶府). The Opium produced in these places is of a very inferior quality; it is known as *Ni-po-tu* (泥砵土), and is very cheap, a pipeful in Hsin-hua costing about 2 cash. Local taxes are levied on the drug, but there is no authorised system of taxation on Opium grown in the province.

2. CONSUMPTION.—The consumption of Opium grown in Hunan is computed at 1,000 piculs per annum; of that of other provinces, at 10,000 piculs—about one-half of the latter amount coming from Kweichow, known as *Ku-lin-t'u* (古蘭土), one quarter from Szechwan, *Ch'uan-t'u* (川土), and one quarter from Yunnan, *Feng-tzu-t'u* (封子土) or *Yin-feng-t'u* (雲封土). Formerly, Szechwan Opium commanded the Hunan market, but a falling off in quality, owing to adulteration, has of late seriously affected its sale. 20,000 piculs of Native Opium annually enter Hunan province, half for local consumption, and half in transit to Kiangsi, Kwangtung, and Kwangsi.

3. TRANSIT ROUTES.—(1°) *Opium in Transit for Kiangsi and Kwangtung*:—

(i.) Yunnan and Kweichow Opium, by the Yüan River to Ch'ang-tê; the principal Likin stations *en route* in this province being Hung-chiang (洪江) and Ch'ang-tê (常德).

(ii.) Szechwan Opium, overland from Lai-feng-hsien (來鳳縣), in Hupeh, through the districts of Lung-shan (龍山縣), Sang-chih (桑植縣), and Tzu-li (慈利縣), by land and water to Ch'ang-tê. Likin on Opium travelling by this route is collected at Hsien-ch'a-ho (仙槎河), near the Hupeh border, or at Tzu-li (慈利), both being branches of the Ch'ang-tê office.

(2°) *Opium in Transit for Kwangsi*:—

(i.) Kweichow Opium, by the Yüan River to Ch'ien-yang-hsien (黔陽縣), in Yüan-chou-fu (沅州府), thence up the Wu-shui branch of the Yüan River, through Hui-tung-hsien (會同縣), and on to Kwangsi. The Likin station for this route is at Kuang-p'ing (廣平), in Hui-tung-hsien.

(ii.) Szechwan Opium, by a branch of the Yüan River, through Pao-ching-hsien (保靖縣), to Ch'ên-chou-fu (辰州府), where the branch river joins the Yüan; from here the Opium travels up the river to Ch'ieh-yang-hsien, and then follows the same route as that described for Kweichow Opium in transit to Kwangsi. The Chi-kan-ping (吉崗坪) office collects Likin on Opium using this route.

Hung-chiang (洪江), in Chieh-yang-hsien, is the great mart for all Yunnan and Kweichow Opium; Ch'ang-tê, however, is the most important Opium centre in Hunan, and thither the bulk of the Opium finds its way, again to branch off to its various destinations.

The main road from Ch'ang-tê is by the channels through the delta land to the south of the Tungting Lake and up the Hsiang River. The Yochow supply of Opium comes *viâ* the channels south of the lake. If the Opium is for Kiangsi, it turns off up one or other of the eastern branches of the Hsiang River; if for Kwangtung, it continues up the Hsiang and across the border. The Likin office at Hsiang-t'an appears to be the most important on the banks of the Hsiang River. The old route for Szechwan Opium into Hunan was by waterways *viâ* Shasi. The Opium which came this way had to pass Shu-san-kuan (雙三關) Likin station. The taxes being heavier here than on the new route overland *viâ* Lai-fêng-hsien, the latter has superseded that *viâ* Shasi. The Shasi merchants are said to have petitioned against the preferential treatment of Opium for Hunan *viâ* Lai-fêng-hsien; and it is a point worth noting that, if a uniform system of taxation is imposed, and the artificial encouragement of one route in favour of another done away with, the Opium will probably revert to its old and natural course *viâ* Shasi.

4. OPIUM LIKIN.—(1.) *Szechwan Opium*.—The Likin charged at the various places is as follows:—

Per Picul of 1,200 Liang:

At Hu-chou, in Szechwan—

Tta 10.8.2.0 = Per picul of 1,600 liang: Tta 14.2.6.7

At Lai-fêng-hsien, in Hupeh—

Tta 3.3.0.0 = " " " " 4.4.0.0

At Ch'ang-tê, River Transit

Likin (or at Tzu-li, if the

Opium is for Li-chou)—

Tta 4.4.0.0 = " " " " 5.8.6.7

TOTAL AT THIS STAGE . . . = Per picul of 1,600 liang: Tta 24.5.3.4

A white label is stuck on the Opium at Ch'ang-tê, as proof of payment of the River Transit Likin. If the Opium now is for local consumption, *Lo-ti-li* (落地釐) is levied, and a yellow label is pasted on. These two labels pass the Opium free from further taxes within the limits of the prefecture in which the issuing office of the yellow labels is situated. This *Lo-ti-li* varies with each prefecture, and is—

Per Picul of 1,200 Liang:

At Ch'ang-tê—

Tta 3.9.0.0 = Per picul of 1,600 liang: Tta 5.2.0.0

At Changsha—

Tta 3.4.0.0 = " " " " 4.5.3.3

At Yochow—

Tta 3.6.0.0 = " " " " 4.8.0.0

After payment of River Transit Likin at Ch'ang-tê, a time limit or grace of five days is allowed Szechwan Opium, during which time it may pass on without payment of *Lo-ti-li*. From

REPORTS, 1892-1901.

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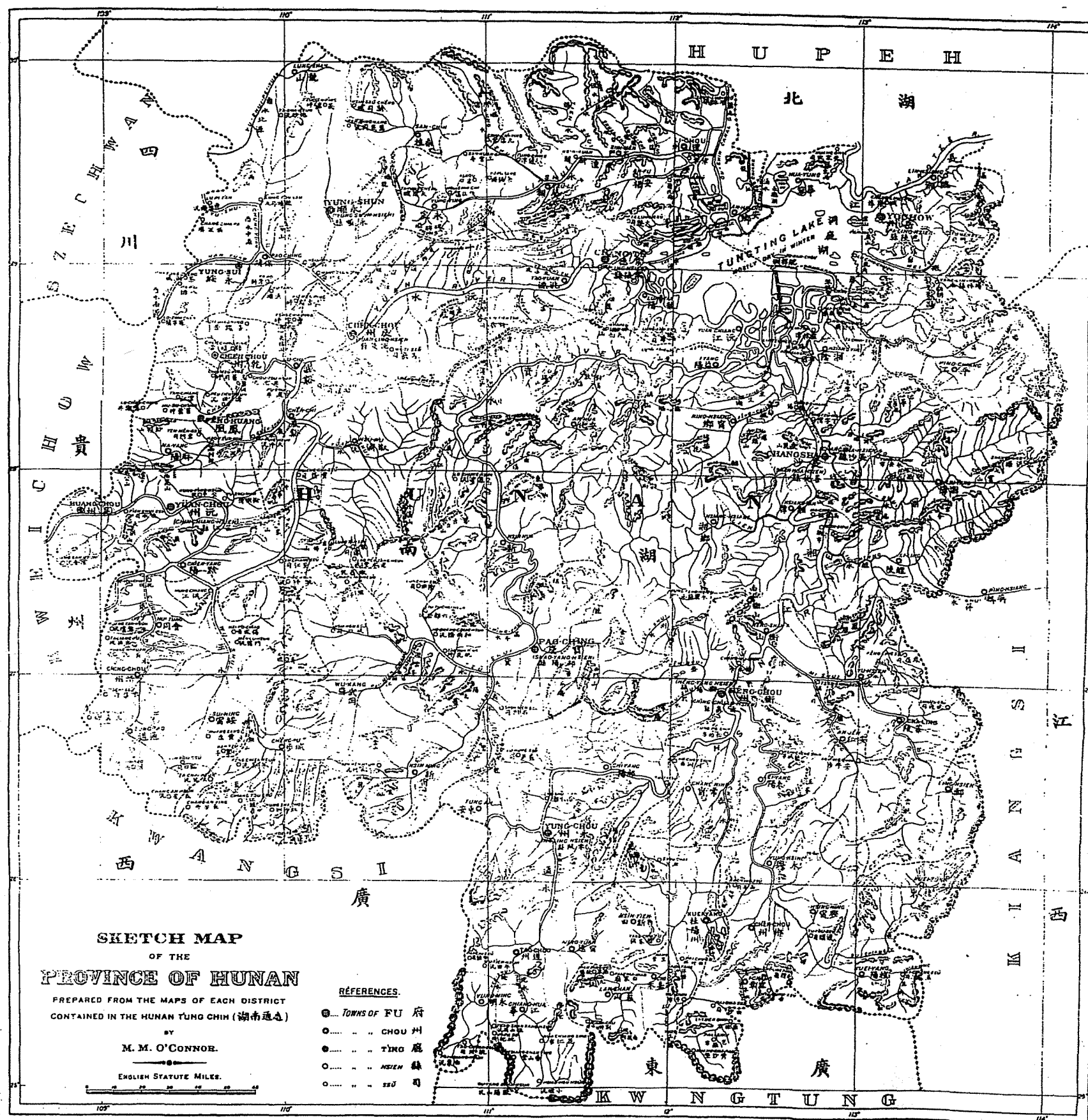
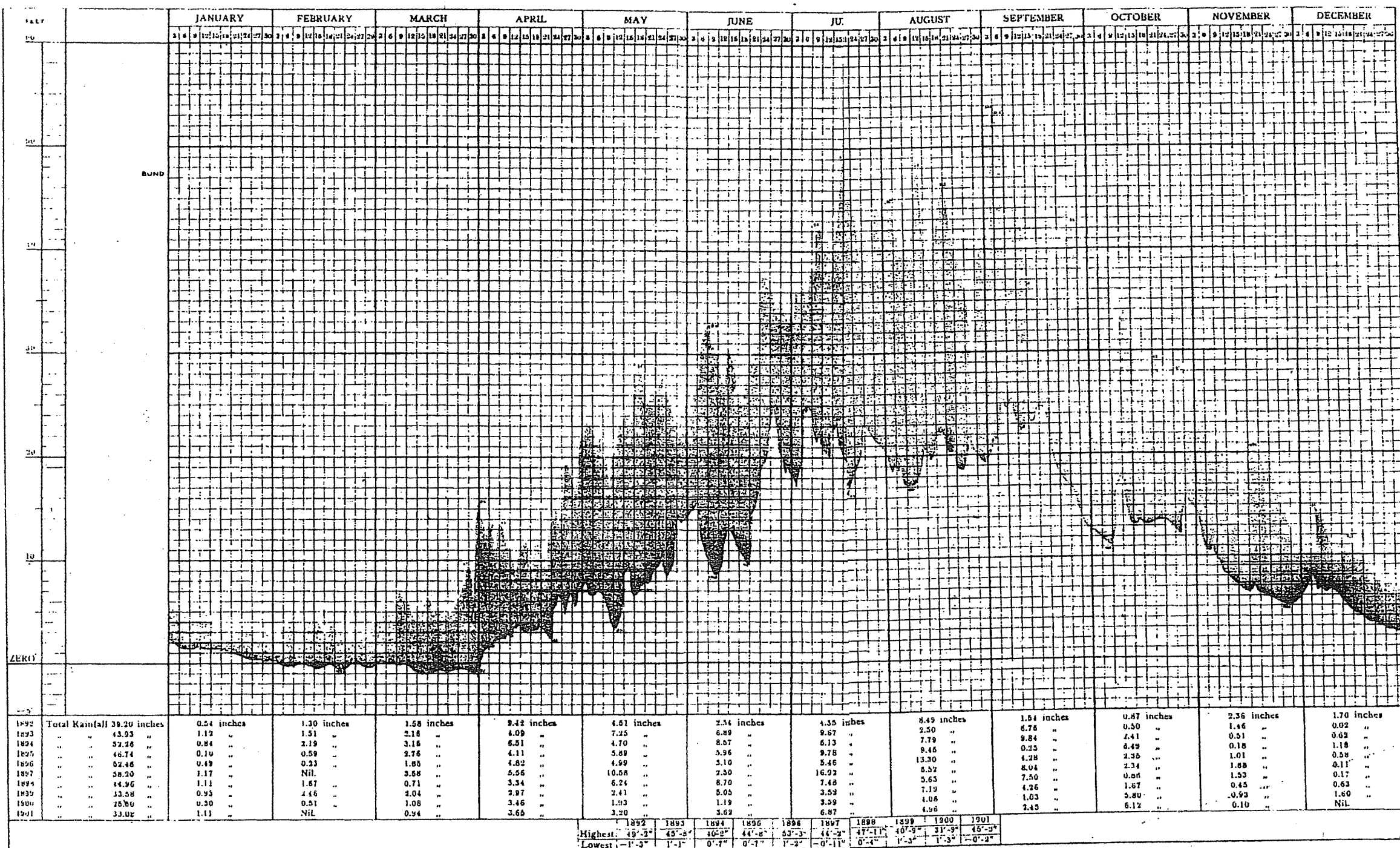


DIAGRAM SHOWING THE RISE AND FALL OF THE RIVER YANGTZE AICHANG FOR THE YEARS 1892-1901.



Highest Water: 3rd September, 1894. Lowest Water: 17th March, 1892.
N.B.—The tinted portion represents the rise and fall between a maximum and minimum line for the whole period.
 The more prominent variations are marked with the year in which they occurred.

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Ch'ang-tê the route now followed is by the canals through the delta to the south of the Tung-ting Lake and up the Hsiang River. Before leaving the province, a final Likin, variously termed *Hsing-li* (行釐) or *Yen-fei* (釐費), is charged, either at Li-ling (醴陵), when the Opium is for Kiangsi, or at Chu-ting-i (朱亭驛) or Lei-chia-shih (雷家市) offices, on the Hsiang River, above Hsiang-t'an, if the drug is for Kwangtung. Some uncertainty exists as to the actual rates, but the preponderance of evidence points to the following:—

Per Picul of 1,200 Liang:

Before leaving the province—

Ta 1.0.5.0 = Per picul of 1,600 *liang*: Ta 1.4.0.0

The trade in and consumption of Opium is further variously taxed, at different places, viz.:—

(i.) At Ch'ang-tê, by a charge of 10 cash per day on each lamp burned in the Opium dens.

(ii.) At Yochow, Changsha, and Hsiang-t'an, by a shop tax (門釐) of 800–1,000 cash per picul used on the premises.

(2°) *Kweichow Opium*.—Likin is charged, at the various places, as follows:—

Per Picul of 1,200 Liang:

At Chêng-yüan, in Kweichow—

Ta 8.0.0.0 = Per picul of 1,600 *liang*: Ta 10.6.6.7

At Hung-chiang, in Hunan,

River Transit Likin—

Ta 4.5.0.0 = " " " " 6.0.0.0

TOTAL LIKIN AT THIS STAGE = Per picul of 1,600 *liang*: Ta 16.6.6.7

White labels are used, and the Opium is henceforth, throughout Hunan, subjected to the same rules and regulations as described for Szechwan Opium. Merchants, however, complain that on the slightest pretext, such as a small corner of the label having been torn off, the Ch'ang-tê office charge River Likin again; hence, they are in self-defence obliged to lay in a stock of labels at Hung-chiang, obtained for a mere nothing from the underlings at that place. Before reaching Ch'ang-tê, an experienced merchant would carefully look after all the labels on his packages, and see to it that they were in order.

(3°) *Yunnan Opium*.—Likin is charged, at the various places, as follows:—

Per Picul of 1,200 Liang:

In Yunnan—

Ta 12.0.0.0 = Per picul of 1,600 *liang*: Ta 16.0.0.0

In Kweichow and Hunan it pays the same as Kweichow Opium, and is subjected to the same rules and procedure.

5.—COST OF THE OPIUM.—(1°) *Szechwan Opium*.—The retail selling price for Szechwan Opium at Ch'ang-tê was, in November 1901, 220 cash per *liang*: at 1,200 cash to the tael, this

works out, roughly, at a price of Ta 18 per 100 *liang*. This quantity costs, according to the Ch'ang-tê Opium merchants, on an average, Ta 13 at the place of production; and working on the basis of their figures, the transport comes to Ta 0.61, and the Likin to Ta 1.85: consequently, the total cost to them would be Ta 15.46.

(2°) *Kweichow Opium*.—At Ch'ang-tê Kweichow Opium may be bought for about the same price as Szechwan Opium, i.e., Ta 18 per 100 *liang*.

(3°) *Yunnan Opium*.—Yunnan Opium is said to be the best and dearest of any Native Opium. It is bought at places of production for Ta 22 per 100 *liang*; at Ch'ang-tê the same amount costs Ta 30.

(e.) to (j).

(k.) *UNHAPPY OCCURRENCES*.—There are, fortunately, but few calamities to record. Fires, as is usual in Chinese cities, were frequent, but only three assumed serious dimensions. In January 1899 a fire broke out in Ch'ang-tê, doing much damage and rendering more than 1,000 families homeless; the premises of the Imperial Chinese Post Office were on this occasion burnt out. In February of the same year 1,500 shops outside the south gate of Yochow city were completely destroyed by fire; and in 1900 over 2,000 houses were burnt down in Changsha. A fire brigade came into being after this, the maintenance of which is provided for by the shopkeepers; but, of course, with lack of proper fire-extinguishing appliances, the Chinese are practically powerless in the face of serious conflagrations in their overcrowded cities.

Small disturbances, caused by disbanded soldiers, occurred at Li-chou in 1896, at Lin-hsiang in 1900, and at Hên-yang in 1901; they were, however, quickly suppressed by the local authorities.

On March 29th 1899 a terrible storm swept over the province, destroying thousands of houses and causing great loss of life.

"The province did not escape the anti-Foreign feeling prevailing last summer (1900). Mission property in various towns was looted or wrecked, while in Hêng-chou-fu the Franciscan Mission, established there for over 100 years, suffered grievous loss. The Bishop and at least two priests were tortured and killed; the mission buildings, including a fine cathedral, as also an orphanage, being utterly destroyed. In this connexion, some remarkable escapes are reported—one priest being carried in a coffin by his converts over the border into Kwangtung and safety; another lay hid in a box for six days before he dared venture out and make good his escape."* The matter was promptly settled by the authorities and the mission indemnified, no further trouble arising.

Hunan did not escape the devastating flood of 1901, but suffered little in comparison with the provinces bordering upon the Lower Yangtze. The places most affected were those bordering upon the lake.

(l.)

* Yochow Trade Report for 1900.

(m.) *PEKING DEGREES*.—At the Peking examinations held during the period under review high literary degrees were obtained by the following Hunanese students:—

<i>Chuang-yüan</i>	<i>Nil</i> .
<i>Pang-yen</i>	YIN SHOU-MING (尹綬銘), a native of Ch'a-ling (茶陵州).
	HSIA SHOU-T'EN (夏壽田), a native of Kuei-yang (桂陽縣).
<i>Tan-hua</i>	CHENG YUAN (鄭沅), a native of Changsha (長沙縣).
	WANG LUNG-WÊN (王龍文), a native of Hsiang-hsiang (湘鄉縣).

(n.) *LITERARY MOVEMENTS*.—There are in Changsha six colleges, i.e., Yo-lu (嶽麓書院), Chiao-chung (敬忠書院), Ch'iu-shih (求實書院), Chiao-chin (教經書院), Hsiao-lien (孝廉書院), and Ch'êng-nan (城南書院), each presided over by a *Shan-chang* (山長), generally retired officials of high rank and scholarly attainments, and natives of this province, at a salary of about Ta 100 per month. The Yo-lu College, founded during the Sung dynasty, is open to natives of any province. The candidate must send his name into the Prefect's yamên, who forwards the list to the Governor, by whom the examinations are held. Successful candidates (about 10 per cent.) are then entered as students, and receive an allowance of grain as board. Their stay in the college is limited to one year. Examinations are held monthly, and small money prizes given to successful candidates. The Hsiao-lien College is open to *chü-jên* of Hunan only, and the colleges of Ch'iu-shih and Chiao-chin to Hunanese *hsiu-ts'ai*. Western sciences are taught in the Ch'iu-shih College; but admission to this institution is hard to obtain, as the endowment is small and accommodation limited, while it has been found difficult to engage competent teachers.

A college has been founded in Changsha by His Excellency LO PING-CHANG (駱秉章), the last Governor of Hunan, for the education of descendants of loyal statesmen who died for their country. Its cost is defrayed by the military officials of the provincial city and by the Salt and Tea Likin stations.

Every *fu*, *chou*, and *hsien* has schools for general education, the expenses being met by the local officials and by private donations.

(o.) In the 25th year of KUANG HSÜ (1899), at the last triennial examination of which the result is obtainable, the number of Hunan *chü-jên* was 72, and *hsiu-ts'ai*, 1,598. Of the latter, 345 belonged to Changsha prefecture (長沙府), 115 to Yochow prefecture (岳州府), 104 to Li-chou sub-prefecture (澧州), 150 to Pao-ching prefecture (寶慶府), 172 to Hêng-chou prefecture (衡州府), 106 to Ch'ang-tê prefecture (常德府), 78 to Ch'ên-chou prefecture (辰州府), 57 to Yüan-chou prefecture (沅州府), 163 to Yung-chou prefecture (永州府), 67 to Ching-chou sub-prefecture (靖州), 100 to Ch'ên-chou sub-prefecture (郴州), 51 to Yung-shun prefecture (永順府), 35 to Fêng-huang sub-district (鳳凰廳), and 55 to Kuei-yang sub-prefecture (桂陽州).

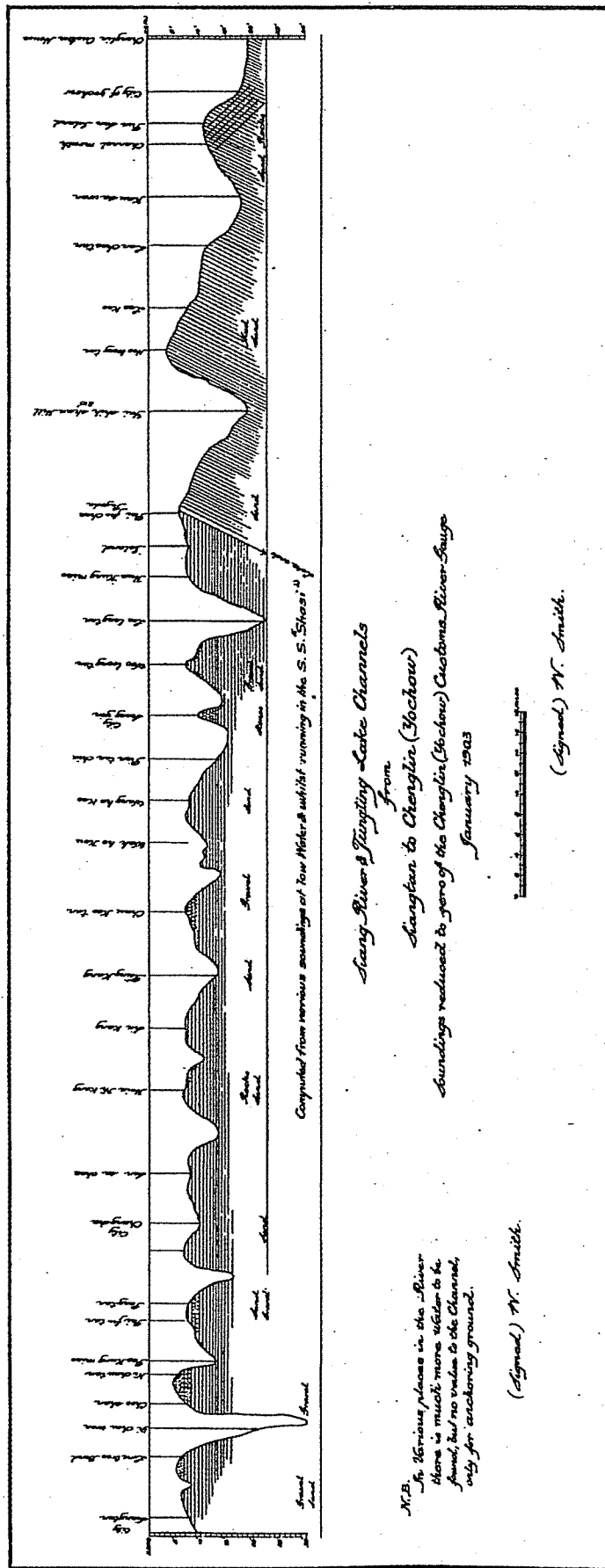
The population of the province is estimated at about 18,000,000; but these figures are very unreliable. It is stated that about 50 per cent. of the men, and 3 per cent. of the women, can read or have had some form of education.

(p.) TOPOGRAPHY OF THE PROVINCE.—“The province of Hunan lies, roughly, between the 26th and 30th parallels of latitude, and the 109th and 114th meridians of longitude east from Greenwich. Its area is, approximately, 90,000 square miles, and its population is variously estimated at from 9,000,000 to 22,000,000. Of its surface, the Hunanese say, picturesquely but not quite accurately, that it consists of ‘three parts upland, six water, and one lowland’ (三山六水一分田).”

Hunan lies on the northern slope of the Nan-ling range of mountains, which, being an offshoot of the Central Asian mountain plateau, stretches across China from west to east, and forms the watershed of the Yangtze basin and the rivers which find an outlet in the China Sea. The southern and western parts are very mountainous; the middle regions consist of open, undulating upland; and the northern part of the province is largely occupied by the Tungting Lake and the low-lying country between it and the Yangtze. This part of the province, and that to the west and south of the lake, is mostly alluvial land, protected by an extended system of dikes against ordinary summer floods, but “rising nowhere above the dangers of catastrophic inundations.”

From the Nan-ling range of mountains, the Hsiang, flowing through the eastern part of the province, and the Tzu River through the central, empty themselves into the Tungting Lake, as do the Yuan River, coming from Kweichow and draining the western part of the province, and the Li-shui, watering five north-western districts. The lake is thus the reservoir for the drainage of the province. In winter it is but a collection of mudflats, the haunt of millions of wild swans, geese, and other wild fowl, with the trickling streams of the river meandering through it. In the summer, however, the level of the water in the lake will rise with the level of the rivers which feed it some 30 to 40 feet. At this time it presents a huge expanse of water, variously estimated at 4,000 to 6,000 square miles in extent. The lake acts as a leveller, or check, to the sudden swellings to which the rivers of the mountainous regions of Hunan and the Yangtze in these parts are subject. For instance, last summer Changsha experienced higher floods than had been witnessed in the memory of man, while the water mark at Yochow, at the outlet of the lake into the Yangtze, registered nothing unusual for the time of the year. The sudden floods of the rivers of Hunan spent themselves in the vast expanse of the Tungting Lake. In a similar manner, when the Upper Yangtze is suddenly and unusually augmented, through heavy downpours in Szechwan, the lake, through numerous canals above and below Shasi, receives a lot of the surplus water, and thus regulates the volume of the Great River. During extremely high floods, like those of last summer, the lake and the Yangtze are merged into one. The low-lying regions between the Yangtze and the lake—and the extended delta land west and south of this, formed by the rivers emboguing into the lake—are intersected by innumerable navigable canals, which, together with the main rivers and their many affluents, form an extended network of waterways, by which, for the greater part of the

* Mr. Moran's Yochow Trade Report for 1899.



year, access can be had by Native craft to almost any part of the province. In addition, Hunan has a riverine border for a distance of 70 miles along the Yangtze. How far the inland waters of the province lend themselves to steam navigation will be treated more fully under the heading following, "Navigability of Waterways."

NAVIGABILITY OF WATERWAYS.—*The Hsiang River* is navigable as far as Changsha, for seven to eight months of the year, to steamers drawing 5 or 6 feet. The kind of steamer now plying between Hankow and Ichang could equally well, during this period, navigate the Hsiang. Hsiang-t'an, higher up the river, is not quite so accessible, there being about a foot less water over the shallow places between this town and Changsha. The river is, otherwise, broad, and not particularly tortuous. The water is often very clear, and the bottom in the shallow places consists of shingle and large pebble-stones. For light-draught vessels the river is navigable for a considerably longer distance. In fact, by a canal connecting the river near its source with the Kuei-chiang (桂江) branch of the West River, direct water communication with Canton *via* Kuei-lin, the capital of Kwangsi, is maintained; the route is, however, only of use to the lightest of small sampans. Hsiang-t'an has always been reckoned the place of transshipment on the Hsiang River, and derives its importance, mainly, from this fact. The traffic on the river above to Hêng-shan and Hêng-chou, or up the Lei-shui branch to Ch'ên-chou (郴州)—a route by which a considerable trade with Canton was carried on in former years,—is for the greater part of the year maintained by Native boats of very small dimensions. During four winter months the water in the river gets very low, and in some places, notably Chi-kung-t'an (吉公灘), 70 li above Hsiang-yin, and two places between Changsha and Hsiang-t'an, as little as 1½ feet and 1 foot, respectively, is at times met with. The writer found these depths, when on a trip up the Hsiang River, in the latter half of November this year. The season, however, had been one of prolonged drought, and the Natives everywhere spoke of the water as being exceptionally "dry." Later, in December and January, not less than 3 feet of water was found as far as Changsha by other travellers. This depth may, according to all accounts, be taken as the normal winter level. Yet vessels that have to be sure of maintaining open communications with Changsha the whole year round must be built to be able to float at less than that; but this should not prove any insurmountable obstacle to steamer navigation on the Hsiang. Many rivers, in all parts of the world, much worse than the Hsiang are successfully plied with light-draught steamers; and when we know that it is possible nowadays to build steamers 180 feet long capable of carrying 259 tons on 36 inches draught, or 61 tons on 18 inches, drawing empty 12 inches, with a guaranteed speed of 13 miles an hour, there seems no reason why the Hsiang should not be plied the whole year round by steamers.

The Tzu River, from I-yang upwards—very narrow in parts and running between steep hills,—appears to be one long succession of rapids, some of them being very difficult to navigate. Hundreds of rapids are spoken of between I-yang and Pao-ching-fu, and the river has, therefore, also been called the Tan-shui, *i.e.*, "River of Rapids." Junka, to which this river seems only navigable, double their crews for the journey between I-yang and Pao-ching; yet accidents are said to be frequent. Rain causes sudden swelling of the river, for which the boats often

wait, when they will shoot the rapids from Pao-ching to I-yang—a distance of 500 *li*—in two days. It seems utterly out of the question that steam will ever be used on this erratic river.

The Yuan River and Approaches.—The Yuan, even in the high-water season, is rarely entered by junks by its main entrance into the Tungting Lake. Two theories in explanation of this have been propounded. The one is that the junks are afraid of sailing across the Tungting Lake, where the wind soon gets up a very nasty sea, and therefore they prefer the safer, albeit longer, routes by the canals through the delta land south and west of the lake. The other is a supposition, offered by Mr. MORSE, "that in the Yuan, heavily laden with silt, the bottom at the bar rises with the flood, as does that of the Peiho." Whether this be actually so or not, there does not seem to be much doubt that the extreme western part of the lake proper and the mouth of the Yuan are silted up to such an extent that navigation by this, the shortest, way has become an impossibility. Lieutenant-Commander HILLMAN, of H.B.M.S. *Woodlark*, accompanied by the writer, attempted this year, during the high-water season, to cross the lake in a Native junk from Yochow to the mouth of the Yuan River. Plenty of water was found in the eastern part of the lake; but towards the western end the lake became nothing more or less than a morass, masses of reeds impeding the passage of the boat. Owing to calm weather and the set of the current, the mouth of the Yuan was not reached; but enough had been seen to make it highly improbable that the lake at its western end is navigable, at any rate to steamers, to which the masses of reeds, if nothing else, would prove an obstacle. I am inclined to believe that the lake is fast silting up in its western part, and that it is owing to this fact, and not to inclemency of the weather, that this large expanse of water during the high-water season is not more utilised by the junks. Strengthening this belief is the fact that in former times the traffic on the lake, to judge from the attention given to the To-kan Island (舵桿洲), must have been very great. A stone tower, 60 feet high, the pinnacle of which was 200 feet above the level of the lake, was built on it, in 1732, by Imperial command, at a cost of about Fta 200,000, as a landmark to the sailors navigating the lake. The natural harbour found here was furthermore improved, and 16 life-boats stationed at the island; this number was some six years afterwards increased to 28. The number of junks passing the island annually is stated to have been very great, and to have attracted large numbers of pirates, with whom the lake was then infested. The route has, however, fallen into disuse—probably from the silting up of the lake,—and the repairs to the tower and island have long since been discontinued. In 1841 it was finally proposed to abolish the place altogether and utilise the material for building purposes elsewhere.

The lake, towards its south-western end, runs into a bay, between Lung-yang and Yuan-chiang, called the Tien-hsi-hu. The canals connecting with the Yuan River to the west, the Tzū and Hsiang Rivers on the east, are intersected here by this bay, from which junks, when possible, do sometimes cross the lake to Yochow, passing the above-mentioned island.

Ch'ang-tê is now reached, mainly, by the canals through the delta land south of the lake; and by the Tai-ping canal, joining the Yangtze above Shasi; or the Ou-ch'ih canal, coming out below Shasi, near Sunday Island. This latter route is the best in winter, and is navigable when both the others are impassable. These routes form one part of the huge network of

canals, natural and artificial, which intersect the country between the lake and the Yangtze, and to the west and south of the lake.

It is a pity that no proper system for the erection of dikes exists. Wherever, on the receding of the summer inundations, a mudbank is left, the people in the neighbourhood, desirous of extending their arable land, erect dikes; and when the water rises, the following year, the current encounters this new obstacle, and its natural tendency to wind its way round is thus materially assisted. The boat people complain of this, but have no redress. Moreover, these minor banks are, as often as not, very superficially constructed, and thus subject to periodical destruction, causing endless misery to the population, whose land and lives are often lost by catastrophic inundations. During the floods of last summer no less than 60 embankments in the Ch'ang-tê prefecture alone were said to have broken down.

Travelling during the month of November by the Ou-ch'ih canal, *vid* Ching-shih and the canals and lakes to the westward of the Tungting Lake, to Ch'ang-tê, and from there by the canals south of the lake to Lin-tzū-kou, where a branch of the Tzū River joins the Hsiang, the writer found, in this (as has already been mentioned) exceptionally dry season, only in two places a depth of slightly less than 2 feet. At each place the bottom consisted of soft mud. The water was very clear, and it would therefore seem that dredging would have a lasting effect. Be this as it may, what is wanted is a Hunan Waterway Conservancy Board, to put a stop to injurious erection of dikes and to take active steps to improve the canals, by means of dredging or otherwise. Ch'ang-tê then should be accessible, even at the worst season, to a 3 feet draught; at high-water season, to 5 or 6 feet. The channels are, however, so tortuous that probably nothing exceeding a length of from 100 to 120 feet could well negotiate the sharp bends.

Ch'ang-tê, owing to the natural condition of the river above, is the place of transhipment for the traffic with Western Hunan and Kweichow.

The traffic on the upper river from Ch'ang-tê, and as far as Hung-chiang (洪江), in the Hui-tung district of the department of Ching-chow, is maintained, for 10 months of the year, by a host of junks drawing only 2 feet; from Hung-chiang to Ch'eng-yuan-fu, in Kweichow, the uppermost accessible point on the Yuan, only small sampans, drawing 1 to 1½ feet, ply. During the high-water season it is probable that steam vessels built specially for the trade could proceed higher up. The first rapid is met with 40 *li* above Ch'ang-tê. Last summer a steam-launch capable of steaming 9 knots very nearly succeeded in ascending this rapid: a slightly more powerful launch would, for a certainty, if towing was resorted to as well, be able to overcome this obstacle, when a clear stretch of about 200 *li* of waterway is said to be found; then a formidable rapid, or, rather, succession of rapids, is encountered.

The Li-shui, which taps five north-western districts of the province, is only navigable from Ching-shih, the port of Li-chow, to boats of the smallest description. Ching-shih itself is accessible to ordinary junks for nearly the whole year.

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.—Foremost among these rank agriculture, the cultivation of tea and cotton, the timber trade, mining, shipping, and fisheries.

The climate of the province is healthy, and the ground exceedingly fertile, and capable of producing almost anything. Salt is, in fact, the only necessary for a supply of which Hunan has to fall back on other provinces. In nearly every other branch of vegetable and mineral products she is not only self-supporting, but has an ever-increasing surplus available for export. It is difficult to conceive of any country more bountifully endowed by nature than this province.

RICE.—The Hunanese have a saying that "With a full harvest in Hunan there is enough for the whole world (i.e., China)" (湖南熟天下足). The fact of the climatic conditions allowing of the extraordinary number of three crops being gathered, in the 5th, 7th, and 10th moons, respectively, lends some colour to this statement. Rice is extensively grown in the alluvial districts bordering upon the lake and flanking the rivers. The basin of the Hsiang River is particularly productive. The lake districts are subject to periodical inundations, which, of course, when they occur, seriously diminish the crop total for the province. In the more elevated tracts along the rivers, where the water for irrigation purposes is raised by the many ingenious ways known to the Chinese, or the numerous small valleys terraced off into small fields, watered from the ponds that are dug so as to gather up the drainage from the surrounding hills, the raising of the crops is attended with less fluctuations. In normal years, even with some of the low-lying fields flooded, there will always remain a surplus available for export; with no floods and evenly distributed rains very considerable quantities are exported. Total failures of the crops are exceedingly rare, the official records for the last 300 years only chronicling four instances of the land tax having been remitted for the whole province on account of droughts. The trade in the commodity is, however, at times, seriously hampered by injudicious taxation. Last summer, for instance, the authorities, fearing that the expected increased demand for Hunan rice, on account of the devastation caused by the overflowing of the Lower Yangtze, would drain the province too much, actually doubled the Likin on rice leaving the province. The result, a falling off in the quantity exported of 50 per cent.—yielding, of course, with the doubled Likin, the same revenue to the government,—is said to be looked upon by the authorities, who lose sight of the diminished buying power of the people, as being eminently satisfactory. As to the actual quantities exported, with no statistics to go on, it becomes a matter of conjecture to give these. Mr. MORSE, in his Yochow Trade Report for 1899, seems to think that the average quantity available for export is 1,000,000 piculs. In good years this is certainly much below the mark. Hankow is the principal market for rice from Eastern Hunan; the surplus from the western part goes up the Yüan River, to the province of Kweichow.

There are also grown wheat, *kao-liang*, Indian corn, beans, peas, sesamum seed (to a limited extent), and common Chinese vegetables—all for local consumption.

COTTON is largely raised throughout the northern part of the province, but more particularly in the department of Li-chou and the prefecture of Ch'ang-tê. The crops are sufficient for the clothing of the population of Hunan, but, owing to the very considerable export of Native cloth from this province, the supply has to be augmented by importations of raw cotton and, in later years, Foreign cotton yarn.

INDIGO.—The production of vegetable dye-stuffs, of which in former years a good deal was exported, has, owing to the competition with Foreign chemical dyes, decreased. The plant is, however, still cultivated in sufficient quantities to meet the local demand for this dye.

LEAF TOBACCO, of superior quality, is exported principally from the department of Ch'en-chou, where the soil and climatic conditions are greatly in favour of its cultivation. Its destination is ultimately abroad, and, like so many other articles in the daily more important "muck and truck" line of China's export trade, it should be capable of large development. The Hunanese import prepared tobacco for their own use.

SILK is not a product of this province. Ten years ago the authorities selected a place in the neighbourhood of Changsha, where a grove of mulberry trees was planted and the silk industry started under government auspices. The experiment is still in its tentative stages; and there do not appear to be any valid reasons why the silk industry should not be successfully engaged in by the people of Hunan.

TEA.—Hunan has an ancient reputation for the excellence of its teas. During the latter part of the Tang dynasty, A.D. 618-905, tribute tea was forwarded to the Emperor. At the present day green tea from Chün-shan (君山), a renowned, small island opposite to Yochow, and from the Lin-hsiang district of this prefecture, is set aside for the Emperor's use. In 1842 some Cantonese merchants came to Hunan buying tea for Foreign markets; but it was not till the opening of Hankow, in 1861, that black tea for sale to Foreigners was exported on a large scale.

Mr. MORSE, in his Yochow Trade Report for 1899, writes as follows about the Hunan tea:—"Its quality is good, but has been better, and the history of Oanfas might be repeated. In the An-hua district, up to 10 years ago the highest average price realised for the year's crop had been under Ta 20 a picul; in 1889 instruction was given to the people in the methods of pruning and cultivating the plant, the time and manner of picking, and the mode of firing, with the result that in 1891 the general average price reached Ta 60 a picul, and has not since fallen below its present price of Ta 45. Hunan teas (Oonams) form the principal element in the Hankow tea market, the 1898 supply (560,000 half-chests) being about six-sevenths of original Hankow exports, and two-thirds of the total shipments of leaf tea from that port, re-exports of Kiukiang tea being included. The value of the Hunan output cannot be estimated at less than Ta 5,500,000."

The Customs publication, "Tea, 1888," published by order of the Inspector General of Customs, contains the views of a number of competent people, interested in the trade of China, as to what remedies should be taken to check the inevitable falling off of the industry, which was then clearly foreseen. Opinions differed as to the necessity, or advisability, of reducing the taxes levied on the tea before leaving the country, beyond the reduction or abolition of the tax termed *Shan-li*; all, however, agreed that on no account might the taxes be increased.

The following comparison between the taxes paid per picul of prepared tea, from first to last, in China, in 1888 and in 1901, will show how far the advice given in 1888 has been taken to heart:—

1888.		Hk. Tls.
Shan-li (山釐) (760 cash @ 0.605) =		0.46
Likin (K'u-p'ing Tls 1.25): equivalent to, say		1.22
Benevolent Fund charges:	"	0.09
Customs Duty charges:	"	2.50
TOTAL		<u>Hk. Tls. 4.27</u>
1901.		Hk. Tls.
Shan-li (山釐) (448 cash @ 0.605) =		0.27
Taxes collected by the Likin (K'u-p'ing Tls 1.50) =		1.46
Benevolent Fund charges, averaging		0.09
Customs Duty charges,	"	2.50
TOTAL		<u>Hk. Tls. 4.32</u>

Thus, while the *Shan-li*, originally a grower's tax, has undergone a reduction, in accordance with the above-mentioned recommendation, this has been more than nullified by the increase in the taxes collected by the Likin offices of *K'u-p'ing Tls* 0.25, instituted as a coast defence tax after the China-Japan war.

TIMBER TRADE.—The principal timber forests of Hunan are situated in the following districts, the timber being known as West or East Lake, according as it comes down the Yuan or Tzu Rivers:—West Lake timber comes down the Yuan River, from Tung-tao-hsien (通道縣), Hui-tung-hsien (會同縣), Ch'eng-pu-hsien (城步縣), Sui-ning-hsien (綏寧縣), Chih-chiang-hsien (芷江縣), Ma-yang-hsien (麻陽縣), Yung-sui-t'ing (永綏廳), Fêng-huang-t'ing (鳳凰廳), Ch'ien-chou-t'ing (乾州廳), Chien-yang-hsien (黔陽縣), Yuan-ling-hsien (沅陵縣), Tao-yüan-hsien (桃源縣), and small quantities from Chên-yuan-fu (鎮沅府) in Kweichow; East Lake timber comes down the Tzu River, from Hsin-ning-hsien (新甯縣), Wu-kang-chou (武岡州), Shao-yang-hsien (邵陽縣), Hsin-hua-hsien (新化縣), An-hua-hsien (安化縣), and I-yang-hsien (益陽縣).

In the western districts, where the forests exist, largely, in places inhabited by the aborigines, the timber trade is a monopoly in the hands of three guilds, composed of natives of Tê-shan (德山), An-ching (安慶), Kiangnan (江南), Kiangsi (江西), and Shensi (陝西), and known as San Pang Wu Hsiang (三幫五鄉), literally, "The Three Guilds of Men from Five Districts." The charge of unfair dealings with the savages, laid against the Chinese wherever they come into contact with them, is said to have been well founded in Hunan, and to have been the cause of numerous revolts by the aborigines of these parts. It has therefore been found advisable to restrict the timber trade to the above-mentioned guilds, which are directly responsible to the authorities for the fulfilment of their contracts with the natives. The guilds appear to send their own men into the hills to fell and trim the trees, preparatory to floating

them down the streams to the nearest marts. The trees are cut, in the autumn and winter, by the *fu-shou* (斧手), "axe hands," who receive 300 cash per day; they only cut the trees half through, leaving them standing until the first gale comes along, when, with one sweep, whole forests will come down. It is asserted that the natives replant trees, so as to prevent the supply from being exhausted. The *tao-shou* (刀手), choppers, or "bill hands," next strip the trees of the branches and bark, receiving 240 cash per day; and, finally, the *cha-shou* (扎手), hole-cutters, or "auger hands," make a hole in the butt of each tree, to facilitate the work of building the rafts, receiving a remuneration of 5 cash per tree. The timber is floated down the mountain streams, with the spring and summer freshets, to the nearest places where the depth of the rivers admit of their being made into rafts, the size of these being increased at the following principal timber marts, viz., To-k'ou (托口), Hung-chiang (洪江), Shên-chou (辰州), and Ch'ang-tê (常德), on the Yuan River, and Pao-ching (寶慶), Hsin-hua (新化), and I-yang (益陽), on the Tzu River.

The Yuan River, or West Lake, rafts are only allowed to travel between Ch'ang-tê and Lin-tzu-k'ou (臨澧口) on the 3rd, 6th, 9th, 13th, 16th, 19th, 23rd, 24th, and 29th of each month, on account of the great traffic, sharp bends, and narrowness of the river. Should they travel on any of the prohibited days, and come into collision with junks or boats, they are held responsible for the damage.

On arrival of the Yuan River rafts at Lin-tzu-k'ou, and the Tzu River rafts at Lu-lin-t'an (蘆林潭), they are made into large rafts, of about 80 feet by 60 feet, and from 6 to 8 feet in depth, and then proceed to Hankow without being further increased in size. During the low-water season or winter months, however, the rafts come right on to Ch'eng-lin-chi (城陵磯), 15 li below Yochow city, before being enlarged suitably for the navigation of the Yangtze.

From two to five of these rafts are usually fastened together, with a space of a few feet between each, for mobility in navigation. The crew, which consists of from 16 to 60 men, according to the size of the raft, live in bamboo houses built on the rafts, which give them the appearance of floating villages. The owner or his deputy travels on the rafts, and keeps his own watchmen, who receive 800 cash per month, in addition to their food, and have nothing to do with the navigation: this is contracted for by a headman, who receives from the owner 11,500 cash per man for the voyage from Ch'ang-tê to Hankow. The number of the crew is fixed on the basis of four men per 100 *liang* measurement. The headman, however, pays only his best men at this rate, the second class men receiving 6,000 cash, and the third grade men 3,500 cash, all inclusive of food. In the event of the voyage exceeding 80 days, owing to bad weather, the owner pays the headman 120 cash per man for each extra day and supplies the food. This individual is responsible for the navigation and safe arrival of the rafts at the place of destination; the loss of any part of them must be made good by him. The headman, *ta-ku-lao* (打鼓老), i.e., "the drum-beater," controls the working of his large crew by the beating of a drum, the din of which, at times, when he wants to spur on his crew, is fearful. The rafts float down with the current; steerage is effected by means of large floating rudders of bamboo, run out and then hove in on the enormous capstan placed on the bow raft, and by large sweeps. The greatest danger to the navigation of the rafts is the Tungting Lake in

the high-water season, when want of shelter exposes the rafts, at times, to a nasty sea. The breaking up of rafts, consequent on stranding on a lee beach in the Yangtze during a gale, is also a not uncommon occurrence.

Taxation.—Taxes on the Yuan River timber are levied at T'o-k'ou-hsing (托口汛), at the rate of 20 strings for every 1,000 strings cash value, and at Shên-chou-kuan (辰州關), 30 strings for every 1,000 strings cash value. At Ch'ang-tê, where there is a barrier, the rafts papers are examined, and a small tax collected, of 1 piece—or its equivalent, 240 cash—for every 100 pieces in the raft, for the purpose, it is said, of paying the expenses of the officials sent to the timber districts to purchase wood for the Emperor. Timber from Tao-yüan-hsien (桃源縣) pays taxes at Ho-fu (河汛), above Ch'ang-tê, at the rate of 30 strings for every 1,000 strings cash value. The Tzu River timber pays Duties at the Native Customs at Pao-ching (寶慶), at the rate of 14-18 cash for each piece of timber, also at Su-hsi-kuan (蘇溪關), 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ below Pao-ching, at the rate of 14-18 cash for each piece of timber; and Likin at I-yang (益陽), 32 strings for every 1,000 strings cash value. No more taxes are collected after the rafts leave Ch'ang-tê and I-yang until they arrive at Hsin-ti (新堤), in Hupeh province.

Timber exported.—The timber exported from Hunan consists of pinewood (杉木 and 松木); also of the following hard-woods—oak (櫟木), cedar (檜木), camphor (樟木), fragrant-wood (香木), red-wood (椿木), cypress (柏木), jujube-wood (棗木), mulberry-wood (梓木), willow (黃楊木), and *t'ung-mu* (桐木). 90 per cent. of the total export is said to consist of pinewood, and the total value of the export trade is reported to be about T^{t} 12,000,000.

The trees are capable of growing to an enormous size. Some particularly fine specimens of soft-wood trees are, according to a descriptive geography of Hunan, to be found in front of the temple erected to the Emperor SHUN, of legendary fame, at Ning-yüan (甯遠縣). The dimensions are, probably with some exaggeration, stated to be: height, 300 feet; diameter, from 7 to 8 feet. There were originally 16 of these forest giants. Long ago the building of a fine Confucian temple in Hunan was undertaken, and it was thought that some of the above-mentioned trees might appropriately be employed in its erection; but when the wood-cutters came, and had succeeded in cutting one of them down, a terrible storm of thunder and lightning arose, whereupon the workmen fled in terror. The Hunanese, seeing in this a sign that the destruction of these ancient trees was displeasing to heaven, have, fortunately, left them alone ever since.

BAMBOOS.—Considerable quantities of bamboos are also exported. The principal bamboo groves are situated in the districts of Hsin-hua (新化縣), An-hua (安化縣), and I-yang (益陽縣), in the prefecture of Changsha. The bamboos are cut and floated down in rafts, in much the same way as described for timber. Likin is levied at I-yang, in this province, at the rate of 1 cash per bamboo. The value of the trade is estimated at T^{t} 1,000,000.

MINING.—At a time when the peoples of Northern and Western Europe were emerging from the neolithic period, and bronze implements commenced to supersede those of stone, the Chinese claim to have had mining as a well-developed industry. Reference to it is said to be found in the "Chou Ritual," a book written in the 11th century B.C., by the DUKE OF CHOU, of the Imperial dynasty of this name.

During the Han dynasty, B.C. 206-23, iron, in common with salt, became an article upon which taxes were levied—a sure sign of the industry having become an important one.

With the exception of iron and coal, the mining for most other minerals seems to have been a Government monopoly; and in the Sung dynasty, A.D. 420-477, we find 51 gold and silver mines, 35 copper mines, 36 lead-producing places, and 9 tin and 4 quicksilver mines, all controlled by Government officials.

Abbé HUC, speaking of the Mongol kingdom Ghecten, and its "astonishing wealth, especially in gold and silver mines, which of themselves have occasioned many of its worst calamities," goes on to say: "Notwithstanding the rigorous prohibition to work these mines, it sometimes happens that large bands of Chinese outlaws assemble together and march, sword in hand, to dig into them. There are men professing to be endowed with a peculiar capacity for discovering the precious metals, guided, according to their own account, by the conformation of mountains and the sorts of plants they produce. One single man, possessed of this fatal gift, will suffice to spread desolation over a whole district. He speedily finds himself at the head of thousands and thousands of outcasts, who overspread the country and render it the theatre of every crime. While some are occupied in working the mines, others pillage the surrounding districts, sparing neither persons nor property, and committing excesses which the imagination could not conceive, and which continue until some mandarin powerful and courageous enough to suppress them is brought within their operations, and takes measures against them accordingly." Experiences of this kind are well known to the Chinese—no wonder, therefore, that mining for precious metals has not, as a rule, been encouraged. For similar reasons, the people fearing an influx of reckless gold-hunters coming to deprive them of what they consider their own property, and the local authorities despairing of being able to cope with these unruly elements, we find the population and local authorities of Hunan vigorously opposing attempts to open up gold mines. Several attempts, receiving Imperial sanction, were made during the Sung dynasty, A.D. 960-1126, and during the Ming dynasty, A.D. 1368-1628; but all in vain.

Owing to the above reasons, and, presumably, to enormous leakages in the administration, most attempts at gold mining on the part of the Government have turned out failures. Perhaps the most glaring fiasco in the endeavour to replenish an exhausted Exchequer by mining occurred during the reign of the Emperor CH'ENG HUA, A.D. 1465-1488. The financial difficulties of this monarch, owing to reckless expenditure, being very pressing, he ordered the reopening of all gold mines, and that diligent search should be made for new gold-fields. About half a million miners are said to have been employed; yet the net result accruing from this desperate enterprise only amounted to 30 ounces of gold!

Iron mines have, as we have seen, been worked in China from a very remote period. The industry, like the digging for coal, commencing at a later date, has been fairly free from official interference. The iron has always been famous for its quality, and in spite of the very hazy and limited knowledge of the country which Europe had in ancient times, we find, nevertheless, that China, the "Land of the Seres" of the Romans, was known by them to be possessed of iron of excellent quality.

Considering the large surface deposits of coal in China, and the early civilisation of her inhabitants, it is difficult to believe otherwise than that they tumbled to the knowledge of the properties of coal at a very early age. A descriptive geography dating from the Han dynasty, B.C. 206-23, makes mention of "a kind of stone," which was produced in the present province of Kiangsi, "which could be burned like fuel." It is a curious coincidence that, more than 1,300 years later, MARCO POLO, the Venetian, who in the latter part of the 13th century brought us the first authentic account of the use of coal in China, should refer to it as "a sort of black stone which they dig out of the mountains, where it runs in veins." For the rest, his account shows that in his time, when the properties of coal were but little known in Europe, it was extensively used as fuel by the Chinese.

Mining has thus been carried on in China for some thousands of years, and, in spite of crude methods, owing to lack of inventive skill in the mechanical arts, and the superstition of *feng-shui* against which the industry has had to contend, enormous quantities of mineral matter must have been produced. Yet—and this, no doubt, sounds paradoxical—the industry is in its infancy. Quite a remarkable development is, however, noticeable during the present dynasty, commencing with the reign of K'ANG HSI, A.D. 1662-1723, as soon as this monarch—a great part of whose time, it will be remembered, was occupied in warlike operations—had succeeded in establishing peace within and without the borders of the Empire. A study of the encouragement given to mining and the number of mines opened in China during the 18th century would come as a revelation to many; and although the most potent factor in assisting mining in China to attain its proper importance will be the supersession by machinery of obsolete ways of mining, and the teaching of mineralogy as a science, yet, in fairness, the future historian will date the commencement of the new era of mining from the accession of the Manchus, and not from the introduction of Western mechanical contrivances.

Turning now to Hunan, as more immediately concerning this paper, the following interesting record during this dynasty presents itself:—

During the early years of the 18th century the working of all old mines in Hunan, which had been interrupted during the preceding time of struggle and rebellion, was re-started. Six new lead mines were, furthermore, opened in Kuei-yang-chou (桂陽州) in 1713, the output of which was shortly afterwards stated to be 550,000 catties per annum. In 1726 mention is made of "a kind of white and black substances" in which some silver was found. It seems that the silver did not appear in sufficiently paying quantities. The "substances" were probably lead-antimony ores, which have not till quite recently been worked on a large scale in Hunan, and then not for the per-centage of silver they contained, but for the sake of the antimony. However, about the same time, three silver mines proper are spoken of in the Ning-hsiang district (甯鄉縣) of the Changsha prefecture. In 1728 the opening, on a large scale, of gold mines in the Mu-ping mountains (幕坪山), in the Hui-t'ung district (會同縣) of the department of Ching-chou (靖州), was attempted; but, owing to the opposition of the people, it failed utterly. Two years later copper mines in the Ta-ts'ou mountains (大溪山), in Kuei-yang-chou, were opened; to be followed, eight years later, by others in the same prefecture, in the Chang-ning district (常甯縣) of the prefecture of Hêng-chou, and in the

department of Ching-chou. In 1735, 68 iron mines were reported as being worked in the An-hua district (安化縣) alone, and permission was given to work iron mines also in six prefectures, four departments, and 15 districts. Zinc mines were opened by Imperial command in the departments of Ch'ên-chou (郴州) and Kuei-yang-chou in 1746.

We must come to the 19th century to discover the first retrogressive step in mining, when, in 1801, it being reported to the Throne that in no less than 14 places in the prefecture of Ch'ên-chou the people were profitably working gold, this illicit practice was put a stop to. Again, in 1806, on sulphur mines being found in An-hua and Hsiang-hsiang (湘鄉縣) districts of Changsha prefecture, they were, for some reason, not allowed to be worked. On sulphur mines, however, being found in the department of Kuei-yang-chou, in 1848, they were opened by Imperial command.

It will be noticed that no mention has been made of coal mines in the above record. The reason is, simply, that it has always been left to the people to dig for this mineral wherever they like. As regards iron, according to regulations now in force, the same holds good.

A Mining Bureau, in Changsha, supervises the mining for all other minerals in the province, the rules and regulations of which, having received the Imperial sanction, formed the foundation upon which a multitude of rules regarding the mining industry of the province have since been drawn up. All the rules and regulations of the Mining Bureau have been published in book form, and may be bought from the book shops.

Coal.—To the future great prosperity of this province, hitherto hardly even dreamt of, coal, more than any other mineral, will probably contribute the most. Extensive deposits, of excellent quality, of nearly every variety of coal, are known to exist throughout the mountainous regions. As yet it is only the surface deposits, found in the vicinity of rivers, which are being worked. In some places these are so conveniently situated that the coal junks are said to go alongside the river bank, where the whole crew, armed with picks and shovels, go ashore and dig out their boat-load themselves. On the whole, however, accounts show that these places, owing to the inability of the Natives to keep the water out with the crude means at their disposal, are being abandoned, and places farther inland resorted to—increasing, of course, the cost of production. But there are numbers of mines, conveniently situated near waterways, capable, with Foreign machinery and pumping gear, of being worked at great profit.

A full knowledge of the mineral possibilities of this province can only be obtained when mining experts are allowed access to the interior. As regards the coal-fields, RICHTHOFEN and others have attempted to investigate them; but have all been repulsed and not allowed to leave the boats in which they travelled. The only exception is the American railway engineer, Mr. PARSONS, who, on behalf of an American syndicate, made the survey for the railway enterprise known as the Hankow-Canton Railway, and in the course of this undertaking travelled through Eastern Hunan from north to south. Mr. PARSONS, than whom no Foreigner, probably, has a better knowledge of the coal deposits of Hunan, speaking of the southern half of the province, states that "for a length of 200 miles along our route, and for a width of at least 60 miles, it is underlain with certainly three, and probably more, veins of coal, which, curiously enough, is both bituminous and anthracite;" and again, writing about the bituminous and anthracite

deposits found, amongst other provinces, also in Hunan, he says: "Of the former, there are coals, both coking and non-coking, fit for steel-making or steam uses; while of the latter, there are those adapted for domestic use, with enough volatile matter to ignite easily, and others sufficiently hard to bear the burden in a blast furnace, and yet so low in phosphorus, sulphur, and volatile substances as to render them available for the manufacture of Bessemer pig, as is done in Pennsylvania."

The mining, such as it is, is at present nearly exclusively for anthracite coal, which thousands of junks are engaged in shipping to Hankow and places beyond. The industry thus already affords employment to thousands of people, and a low estimate, based upon the number of coal-laden junks passing Yochow, shows that between 4,000,000 and 5,000,000 tons of coal are annually exported. This is, of course, insignificant, compared with what the future will bring forth. Indeed, when one thinks of the possibilities of the coal deposits of Hunan, found, as they are, side by side with rich iron ores, it is difficult to restrain one's mind from wandering off into dreams of what could be done, and what ought to be done, for the welfare of the possessors of all this latent wealth.

The output from the coal mines at Ping-hsiang (萍鄉), in Kiangsi, actually across the Hunan border, passes down through this province *via* Li-ling (醴陵), Hsiang-t'an, and the Hsiang River. Excellent coking coals are found here, and the Hanyang Iron Works are now solely supplied with coke from these mines. Recent visitors to the mines give a glowing account of them. The progress made last year, under the management of Foreign engineers, is considerable, and the mines are now capable of turning out 300,000 tons of good steaming coal per year. Huge coking ovens are in operation, and the workshops are fully equipped with modern appliances. They are, for instance, already capable of making the girders for the bridges of the Pinghsiang-Liling Railway. This is being built to take the coal down to Li-ling, in this province, where deeper water is found. The distance between the two places is 30 miles, and the railway is expected to be finished before the end of the year. Then the export of coal will begin in real earnest, and it is expected that the competition of these coals will soon make itself felt in the market.

Iron.—The district of An-hua and the prefecture of Pao-ch'ing are the centres of the iron industry in this province. The ores are said to be of exceptionally good quality, and the steel made in Hunan is famous in China; it is even said to be used in the arsenals in China, where it is mixed with best Foreign steel for the making of guns. It is regrettable that the charge laid against the Chinese, of adulterating their products as soon as these have won a reputation for themselves on account of their superior qualities, seems only too well founded with regard to the iron and steel which they offer for sale.

Antimony.—The mineral is worked in several places in the districts of I-yang (益陽縣) and An-hua (安化縣), of the Changsha prefecture, in the districts of Hsin-hua (新化縣) and Shao-yang (邵陽縣), in the Pao-ch'ing prefecture, and in the department of Ch'ên-chou (郴州). It is also said to exist in the Shên-chou prefecture (辰州府), in Western Hunan. A Foreign firm at Hankow has contracted with the authorities for considerable quantities of antimony ores, and there are, besides, two antimony smelting works at Changsha, owned by

a Cantonese and Hunanese firm respectively. These export annually, between them, some 3,000 tons of crude antimony, while it is estimated that 30,000 tons of ore are exported.

The decline in the price of this mineral is given as the reason for the recent closing of one of the above-mentioned smelting works at Changsha.

Lead.—Lead now comes principally from mines situated in the Chang-ning district (常寧縣) of the Hêng-chou prefecture, and the Ch'i-yang district (祁陽縣) of the Yung-chou prefecture. It is also known to exist in the neighbouring department of Kuei-yang-chou. In fact, the whole southern half of the province is said to be rich in lead ores.

Silver.—Silver is found as silver ore proper and in connexion with lead, lead-antimony, and copper ore. Of the first, two ancient mines, the working of which is at the present time prohibited, are known at two places, Shan-ku-lung (山谷壟) and Ta-chio-ling (大鷄嶺), in Ning-hsiang district (甯鄉縣), in the prefecture of Chang-sha. From the silver-lead ore the Natives say that they are able to extract 7 ounces of silver out of every 1,000 ounces of lead.

Gold.—An attempt has been made, but without success, to work gold by Foreign methods in the Ping-chiang district (平江縣) of the Yo-chou prefecture. The richest veins are said to be found in the Shên-chou prefecture (辰州府), in Western Hunan. It is also found in alluvial deposits in small quantities. Natives may be seen, at times, along the river bank, outside the Custom House, earning a precarious living by washing the gravel for gold.

Copper, zinc, tin, and sulphur must also be added to the list of minerals known to exist and being worked in this province.

SHIPPING.—See under (g.).

FISHERIES.—Fish forming one of the main articles of diet in China, it becomes a matter of importance that the supply is plentiful. The rivers of Hunan, like the Yangtze, abound in fish; but it is more particularly from the Tungting Lake that the fisheries of this province derive their importance. A large number of people are engaged as fishermen on the lake, and the annual amount of dried fish which is exported from the lake districts forms no mean contribution to the prosperity of the province.

The principal natural products, besides those treated separately above, are hemp, hides, cow and buffalo horns, borax, cinnabar, potash, saltpetre, green alum, white wax, bamboo shoots, lotus-nuts, ginger, tea oil, wood oil, varnish, nutgalls, and vegetable tallow—all contributing to the export trade of the province.

Of other industries may be mentioned the weaving of cotton cloth (of declining importance in Eastern Hunan, owing to competition with Foreign piece goods, but still very flourishing in the Ch'ang-tê prefecture), the making of grasscloth, coarse paper, fire-crackers and joss sticks, coarse chinaware and pottery, mats, bamboo ropes, iron pans, pewterware, samshu, kittysols, and lacquerware, and stone quarrying—all of them producing articles for export.

Mr. MORSE, in his Trade Report for 1899, estimates the value of the export trade passing Yochow to be at least £75 15,000,000. In addition, there is the trade southwards into Kwang-tung and Kwangsi, which is of minor importance, and the very considerable export trade from Ch'ang-tê into Kweichow, and to Shasi and Hankow by the western routes which Mr. MORSE

referred to. Giving the value of the total exports from Hunan as Ta 30,000,000 would therefore, according to all accounts, be, if anything, below the mark.

The import trade in exchange for all these products consists, mainly, of salt, sugar, Foreign cotton piece goods and cotton yarn, raw cotton, kerosene oil, silk piece goods, seaweed, matches, soap, window glass, and the ordinary miscellaneous articles.

There are no statistics available of the trade of the province. Intelligent Chinese merchants assert the most striking change that has taken place during latter years to be a falling off in the consumption of Native cloth and tea oil of 50 per cent, owing to competition with Foreign piece goods and kerosene oil, the consumption of which has of late increased enormously; while Foreign umbrellas, soap, and matches have increased more than 10 per cent. The consumption of Foreign opium, on the other hand, has decreased 70 per cent.

TRADE CENTRES.—The most important of these is Ch'ang-tê, on the Yüan River, which, owing to the rapids in the river above, is a necessary place of transshipment for the vast traffic between Western Hunan and Kweichow. The importance of Ch'ang-tê is increasing by leaps and bounds, and any development in its *hinterland*, as, for instance, the recent opening of quicksilver mines in Kweichow, must of necessity affect its prosperity beneficially. Its population is, approximately, 300,000, and the city has all the appearances of a busy trade centre. Its shops are well stocked with Foreign goods, although this part of Hunan has not, as yet, received the attention of Foreign merchants to which it is undoubtedly entitled.

The idea of Hsiang-t'an being the great mart of Hunan would appear to be largely due to the unique position it formerly held as the port of transshipment for the trade between Canton and the North *viâ* the Hsiang River, Cheling Pass, and North River in Kwangtung. The introduction of steam vessels along the coast of China and on the Yangtze proved the death-blow of Hsiang-t'an as a flourishing trade centre. The population, once estimated at 1,000,000, cannot now exceed 300,000, and it is still on the decline. It will, however, always retain some importance as the depôt for the produce of the surrounding tea and rice districts, and from the fact that it is accessible to steamers during a part of the year.

Changsha, the provincial capital, is considered one of the finest cities in China. Its population is at least half a million, and the city abounds in fine yamêns and residences of the wealthy gentry of the province. The shops of the city have already a fine display of Foreign goods of the most miscellaneous description, which find ready purchasers among its wealthy inhabitants. Rice is shipped from here, to some extent; but the city has no great industries of its own, nor does its position point to the probability of it ever becoming very important from a commercial point of view.

Hêng-shan, Hêng-chou, Yung-chou, Pao-ch'ing, I-yang, and Shên-chou (the last-named on the Yüan River) are also prominent centres of trade, but are not likely to come into direct touch with Foreign merchants in the immediate future.

For a detailed account of the particular articles of export and import of the principal places of trade in this province, see the tables given under (q.).

TRADE ROUTES.—The channels of trade in China, where good roads are a thing of the past and railroads as yet hardly exist, follow the waterways, wherever this is possible. The

trade of Hunan is, with one exception, subject to the same rule. The exception is the trade with Canton and the province of Kwangtung, which is carried on in junks and sampans by the North River, and Wu-shui branch of it, as far as I-chang (宜章), in this province; from this place the goods are carried overland across the Cheling Pass, a distance of 30 miles, to Ch'ên-chou, the nearest point on the Yu-tan branch of the Lei-shui tributary to the Hsiang, where boats are again resorted to. The trade *viâ* this route in former days, previous to the introduction of steam vessels on the Yangtze, was enormous. With the exception of Kwangtung salt for consumption in Southern Hunan, very little trade now comes this way.

The account of the Cheling Pass given by Mr. PARSONS, in his book, "An American Engineer in China," seems to me so full of interest that I quote it here:—"The highway crossing the mountains by the Cheling Pass, terminating at I-chang on one end and Ch'ên-chou on the other, has therefore been the great trade route between North and South China for certainly 3,000 years, and perhaps more—that is, during the time when the whole of history has been written. It stands to-day as one of the grêat monuments of China's past, compared with which other relics of antiquity seem but as things of yesterday. Many, many years ago this road was paved, for a width of 15 feet, with large, flat stones, ranging in size from 1 to 4 feet square. Deep in these stones there are hollows worn by the bare feet of coolies, carrying their loads like beasts of burden, or there are dug actual holes where the feet of the ponies, jogging along with short steps, have struck. It was lined with shops and with inns, serving accommodations on a cheap scale for coolies and teamsters, and on an elaborate scale for mandarins or rich Cantonese, who, if they had the funds, could gratify their taste with any expensive luxury. But the opening of the Yangtze to commerce, in 1861, seriously damaged the prestige of this route; for, with goods going from or to Canton, it was found more economical to ship by steam vessels between there and Hankow, and be thence distributed. Since then its importance has been gradually diminishing, so that the traffic now passing to and fro, although still considerable, is but a small fraction of what it once was. The rich merchant no longer frequents it, and the elaborately decorated inn erected for his entertainment is dropping to decay. Shops and resting-places for the coolies or pony-drivers are actually abandoned; and the great trade route, which for so many centuries has resounded with the almost continuous patter of the human foot or the clatter of the ponies hoofs, is now becoming more and more disused, and stands—as so many other things in this country stand—an eloquent but silent witness of the past. It had been expected that we could utilize the approximate location of this highway for the route of the railway; but a careful examination revealed the fact that the Natives had not found the true pass at all, which lay some 3 miles to the eastward and about 150 feet lower. For 10, 20, 30, or some other number, of centuries the poor coolies have been carrying their loads, quite unnecessarily, up and down 150 feet of elevation. What a waste of human energy!"

MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION.—Extended waterways imply carriage by boats. On the land route across the Cheling Pass pack-animals as well as coolies are seen, and in the north-west of Hunan, where a good deal of opium is carried overland to Ch'ang-tê from Szechwan, coolies are solely used for its carriage; otherwise, the wheel-barrow is extensively used throughout the province, to bring tea, minerals, and other products to the nearest place accessible to boats.

SALT.—In the third volume of these Decennial Reports will be found Reports on the Huai Salt Administration, which supplies, amongst other districts, the northern part of this province. The southern part is, however, monopolised by Yueh salt from Kwangtung, information on which may prove of interest, and is therefore included here.

YUEH SALT IN HUNAN.

1. *Consumption.*—The consumption of Yueh salt in Hunan is not of recent date. As early as the reign of K'ANG HSI, A.D. 1662-1723, it was settled that Ch'ên-chou (郴州), Kuei-yang-chou (桂陽州), and Ling-hsien (零縣) in the prefecture of Hêng-chou were to be supplied with salt from Kwangtung, and the rest of the province with Huai salt. The Taiping rebels, however, wrought havoc with the Yueh salt trade, as they subsequently did with that in the Huai commodity; but while in the latter case the supply was cut off for years, the reappearance of Yueh salt from the South commenced soon after the final expulsion of the Taipings from Hunan in 1853. About the same time salt from Szechwan put in an appearance. For some time during this interregnum these salts competed side by side, the Yueh salt, to judge from the enumeration of this article in an early tariff of Yochow, finding its way even into Hupeh. On order being evolved out of the chaos, the then Governor of Hunan petitioned the Throne, and obtained its sanction, to have the parts of Hunan above, or to the south of, Changsha supplied with Yueh salt, and the rest of the province with Szechwan salt, until the day when the Huai salt supply should be restored. The Duty and Likin on the salt were fixed, and offices established for their collection. This arrangement lasted for about 10 years. When TS'ENG KUO-FAN reorganised the Huai Salt Administration, an attempt was made to re-introduce the state of affairs *quo ante bellum*. This proved futile. The people of Southern Hunan much preferred the Yueh salt, on account of its cheapness, and the Huai Administration was unable to dispose of a single *yin* of its salt. Severe measures then being taken to suppress the now illicit trade in Yueh salt brought the populace to the verge of a rebellion. As is usual in Hunan in such cases, the aid of the influential gentry was invoked by the government to settle the trouble. Through them a compromise was arrived at, by which Shih-wan (石灣), in the Hêng-shan district, forms the dividing-point, places south of it taking Yueh salt, and those north of it Huai salt. However, in the extension thus gained for Yueh salt, comprising the whole of the prefecture of Yung-chou (永州府) and the greater part of Hêng-chou prefecture (衡州府), it pays something, on the principle "Render unto Cæsar the things which are Cæsar's," to the Huai Administration, as well as to the provincial government.

The official figures for the consumption of Yueh salt in Hunan are:—

	Piculs.
KUANG HSÜ, 24th year	101,420
" 25th "	111,520
" 26th "	110,898

2. *Production.*—Yueh salt in Hunan is said to come from four producing areas in the prefecture of Shao-chou (韶州府), and the department of Lien-chou (連州), in the north of Kwangtung. As regards the rules and regulations controlling the salt production in these

places, I have but the most meagre information. Ten places of production are spoken of, controlled much in the same way, apparently, as are the producing areas in Huai-nan and Huai-peh. The four places from which the Hunan supply of Yueh salt comes are said to be exceptions to the general rule. *Ta-shih Kuan* (大使官) are not found here. The Hunan merchants buy unrestrictedly from the people, and on leaving, pay Likin, the actual amounts of which I have been unable to ascertain, to Salt Likin offices with small *weiyuan* in charge. 10 per cent. of the total salt production of Kwangtung, it is computed, goes to Hunan; the balance is consumed in the province itself, in Kwangai, and part of Kweichow.

3. *Rules and Regulations regarding the Hunan Trade in Yueh Salt.*—Previous to the Taiping Rebellion the supplying of the districts in Hunan which took Yueh salt was a monopoly in the hands of two rich Hunanese firms. The Taipings caused the complete collapse of the monopoly, and it never revived.

The next system, which is rapidly dying out, was one of licensed salt shops, with *fan-shang*, or conveying merchants, who brought to them the salt from Kwangtung for retail sale to the people. The shops obtained their license, *yen-tieh* (鹽帖), from the Provincial Treasurer: including squeezes of all kinds to *yamen* underlings, its cost is said to have been about 400,000 cash (Ta 365). The *fan-shang* were to convey just the amounts that the licensed shops requisitioned for in documents bearing their chops. Each prefecture or department was to collect its own Likin. No wonder, therefore, that the tendency on the part of the *fan-shang* to "do a little deal" on their own account, being facilitated by the Likin officers, whose only care was to get as big a collection as possible, soon made it impossible for the licensed shops to make a profit. These are said to be closing down, the owners taking up the business of *fan-shang*, and selling, practically, where they find a market. In short, it appears that the trade in Yueh salt is fast becoming like that in any other commodity.

4. *Routes; Modes of conveying the Salt; Likin, etc.*—(1°.) *Salt for Consumption in Ch'ên-chou, Kuei-yang, and Hêng-chou.*—The salt is first conveyed by small boats, a distance of 360 *li*, to Ping-shih (平石), close to the Hunan border, and from there by small sampans to I-chang (宜章), 30 *li* further on. A Likin head office is situated here. The *ch'ing-tan*, or "invoices," of the salt merchants are here viséd, the salt examined, and Likin levied, viz.:—

Cash.

Likin payable at I-chang, at the rate
of 400 cash per big package of
180 catties = Per 100 catties 222

From this place the salt has to be carried across the Cheling Pass to Ch'ên-chou, where boats can again be employed. For this purpose the salt is packed into four bags, weighing from 40 to 45 catties each, and either loaded on mules or given to coolies to carry. Both at Ch'ên-chou and its two branch offices, Pei-ch'ia (北卡) and Tung-k'êng-p'u (銅坑鋪)—placed, respectively, 15 and 30 *li* beyond it,—the salt is merely examined.

From Tung-k'êng-p'u to Ta-peï-ch'ia (大陂卡), in Lei-yang-hsien (來陽縣), the distance is 270 *li*. Ta-peï-ch'ia is a branch office, under the Hêng-chou head office. A Huai Salt Administration office is also situated here, for the collection of Duty on Yueh salt consumed in this prefecture.

	Cash.
Likin payable at Ta-pei-ch'ia office, at the rate of 140 cash per bag weighing 45 catties = Per 100 catties	311
Duty at the Huai Administration office (30 per cent. on what Huai salt would have had to pay) =	300
TOTAL LIKIN AND DUTY PAYABLE HERE = Per 100 catties	611
Add Likin paid at I-chang =	222
GRAND TOTAL (LIKIN AND DUTY) = Per 100 catties	833

This comprises all the taxes to which salt coming by this route is subjected.

For distribution to places beyond this point, the salt continues down the Lei-shui to its junction with the Hsiang, and is then either sent up this river to Hêng-chou or down to Hêng-shan-hsien, in which case the Likin receipts are viséd at the Lei-chia-shih barrier; or it travels up a branch river, the Mi-shui, to Yu-hsien (攸縣).

From Ping-shih a course is sometimes set, in a north-westerly direction, to another branch of the Hsiang, the Ch'un-shui, which joins this river some distance above Hêng-chou.

To Mei-t'ien (梅田), accessible to small sampans from Ping-shih, the distance is 140 li. A branch office, under I-chang, here collects Likin at the following rates:—

	Cash.
Likin payable at Mei-t'ien, at the rate of 287 cash per package of 180 catties = Per 100 catties	159

50 li beyond Mei-t'ien, at a place called Ssü-hsi, the salt is made up into suitable loads, and carried overland, for a distance of 240 li, to Fêng-chia-chiu (封家莊), on the banks of the Ch'un-shui. The salt is packed into baskets weighing from 70 to 80 catties each, and sent down the river in boats. The Chiao-ho-k'ou (荖河口) branch office, under Hêng-chou, is situated at the junction of the Ch'un-shui branch with the Hsiang. Likin is paid on the salt when it reaches this place, as follows:—

	Cash.
Likin payable at Chiao-ho-k'ou, at the rate of 351 cash per basket of 80 catties = Per 100 catties	437
Add Likin paid at Mei-t'ien =	159
TOTAL LIKIN AT THIS STAGE = Per 100 catties	596

There are no Salt Likin stations now till Tung-chou (東洲), a small place 5 li above Hêng-chou, is reached; here are established a barrier, where the salt is examined, and a Huai Administration office, for the collection of Duty on Yüeh salt.

	Cash.
Duty payable at this office (the same as at Ta-pei-ch'ia) = Per 100 catties	300
Add total Likin paid at stations previously met with =	596
GRAND TOTAL (LIKIN AND DUTY) PAYABLE BY THE SALT BY THIS ROUTE = Per 100 catties	896

(2°.) *Salt for Consumption in the Yung-chou Prefecture*.—From the places of production in Lien-chou (連州), the salt is brought overland, a distance of 90 li, to Huang-chu-chai (黃竹寨), in the Chiang-hua district (江華縣), in Hunan. The salt is here packed into baskets weighing from 70 to 80 catties, and conveyed by boats to Ma-t'ou-p'u (馬頭鋪), 25 li distant. At this place there is a branch office, under Yung-chou, where all provincial Likin is levied, at the same rate as that levied on Yüeh salt for consumption in the Hêng-chou prefecture, with a reduction, however, of 25 per cent; this is said to be allowed on the ground of the heavier cost of transporting the salt. 15 li further on, at Chiang-lan-t'ing (江藍廳), the Huai Administration office is situated, and collects its quota of Likin on the Yüeh salt. After this only examination barriers are met with in the Yung-chou prefecture.

5. *Salt Likin Offices*.—I-chang (宜章) head office, with Mei-t'ien (梅田) branch office; Ch'ên-chou (郴州) head office, with Pei-ch'ia (北卡) and Tung-k'êng-p'u (銅坑鋪) branch offices; Hêng-chou (衡州) head office, with Ta-pei-ch'ia (大陂卡) and Chiao-ho-k'ou (荖河口) branch offices; Yung-chou (永州) head office, with Ma-t'ou-p'u (馬頭鋪) and Lêng-shui-t'an (冷水灘) branch offices: in all, 4 head offices and 7 branch offices.

6. *Price of Yüeh Salt*.—At places of production, 4 to 5 cash per catty; at I-chang or Ch'ên-chou, 11 to 12 cash per catty; at Hêng-chou or Yung-chou, 52 to 53 cash per catty.

(g.) *SHIPPING*.—The yearly outward tonnage of vessels passing Yochow is about 1,050,000 tons, and the inward tonnage about 919,000 tons, the excess in the outward tonnage being accounted for by the coal junks (*mao-pun ch'uan*) which are broken up and sold on arrival at Hankow. The number of vessels engaged in the carrying trade of the province is about 13,000, with an estimated value of Ta 3,000,000. All the junks are built in the province, from timber felled locally; a fair per-centage of the junks which ply the Yangtze, notably the large salt junks, are likewise made in Hunan. Hsiang-t'an is the principal shipbuilding centre, and the value of one year's trade of that place, for repairing and building craft of all sizes and descriptions, is stated to be Ta 700,000. The above takes no account of the considerable shipping of Ch'ang-tê by the routes west of the lake, of which I have been unable to obtain reliable particulars. The vessels carry no official papers, except a *fang-hsing-tan* (放行單), Likin release permit. They are mostly owned by the *lao-pan*, who lives on board with his family, and is assisted by them in the working of the vessel. It is therefore very difficult to form an estimate of the profits; but it may be taken as a certainty that they are not great, when the low freights given in the tables below, and the time taken on a voyage, are taken into consideration.

There is no Native insurance. It is, however, the custom for the owner of the vessel to pay half the value of any cargo which may be damaged by carelessness or avoidable causes. No money is actually paid for damaged cargo, but the junk-owner carries cargo freight free until the value has been worked off. The number of total losses during a year is estimated to be 5 in 1,000.

The following tables of junks, their cargoes and freights, have been prepared in the Tidesurveyor's office:—

NAME	Capacity.	Cost of Building per Picul.	No. of Masts.	No. of Crew.	REMARKS.
Yung-chou hsiao-po (永州小駁)	Piculs. 300 to 500	\$1	2	5 to 7	Built at Yung-chou (永州), and trade to Hankow, carrying coal, steel, paper, pig iron, and pewterware; returning with kerosene oil, sugar, and general cargo, mostly for Hsiang-t'an (湘潭). Six-tenths of these boats are said to return in ballast.
Ch'én-chou hsiao-po (郴州小駁)	300 to 800	\$1.10	2 to 3	5 to 10	Built at Ch'én-chou (郴州), of hard-wood, and trade to Hankow with coal and leaf tobacco, returning with Foreign piece goods, matches, raw cotton, and general cargo. Eight-tenths of these vessels are said to return in ballast.
Héng-chou (衡州)— P'ing-tou hsiao-po (平頭小駁); hsiao-po (小駁).	100 to 1,100	\$1.20	2	4 to 12	Built at Héng-chou (衡州), of hard-wood, and engaged in the coal trade between Ta-ho-t'an (大河灘), Shih-chu (石主), Hsin-shih-kai (新市街), Fei-kuang-ho (肥光河), and Hankow, with coal in bulk. They make from four to six trips a year. They also carry, from Héng-chou, paper, samshu, lotus-nuts, and lily-root flour. Ta-ho-t'an is 95 li above Lei-yang (萊陽), and 75 li from the coal mines; Shih-chu is 70 li above Lei-yang, and 5 to 8 li from the coal mines; Hsin-shih-kai is 120 li below Lei-yang, and 30 li from the coal mines; Fei-kuang-ho is 45 li above Lei-yang, and 15 li from the coal mines. The coal from these mines is brought down in hand-barrows and carried in baskets by coolies. When chartered, these vessels get at the rate of 160 cash per picul (calculated on the capacity of the vessel) for the round trip to Hankow and back to Héng-chou, or 1,600 cash per day for a 500-picul boat. When no charter is offering, the lao-pan (老板), who is usually the owner, buys a cargo of

NAME	Capacity.	Cost of Building per Picul.	No. of Masts.	No. of Crew.	REMARKS.
	Piculs.				coal, and sells it in Hankow on his own account, returning either in ballast or with what cargo he can pick up at Hankow or elsewhere on his route. For instance, the owner of a 500-picul boat made five trips last year: two trips he returned in ballast; two he got a cargo of beans, at 200 cash per picul of 140 catties; and one trip he picked up a cargo of cotton with seed at Pailo-chi (白螺絲), for which he got 400 cash per bale to Héng-chou.
Héng-shan (衡山)— Hsiao-po (小駁)	300 to 500	\$1	2	5 to 7	Built mostly of hard-wood, at Hsiang-t'an and Héng-shan (衡山), and trade to Hankow, carrying coal, lotus-nuts, paper, samshu, and lily-root flour, returning with sugar, matches, Foreign piece goods, and general cargo. Eight-tenths of them are said to return in ballast.
Fu-tieh ch'uan (扶筴船)	300 to 400	\$1	2	5 to 6	
Hsiang-hsiang (湘鄉)— Man-lin-chiang (滿林江)	200 to 800	\$1.10	2 to 3	4 to 10	Built of hard and soft wood, at Hsiang-t'an (湘潭), and trade to Hankow, carrying rice, paddy, coal, steel, pig iron, paper, tea, borax, mats, bamboo shoots, and joss-stick powder; returning with sugar, Foreign piece goods, raw cotton, and general cargo, most of it being for Hsiang-t'an. Six-tenths of these boats are said to return in ballast.
Tao-pa (到巴)	300 to 600	\$1	2	5 to 8	
Yung-feng ch'uan (永豐船); ku-shui ch'uan (固水船)	200 to 300	\$1	2	3 to 4	
P'ing-pan ch'uan (平板船); huo-tzu (窩子)	500 to 800	\$1	2 to 3	7 to 10	
Hsiang-t'an (湘潭)— Shu-huo-tzu (梳窩子); tao-pa (到巴)	Built at Hsiang-t'an, of hard and soft wood, and trade to Hankow with rice, paddy, chinaware, medicines, paper, borax, tea, and steel, returning with sugar, raw cotton, kerosene oil, Foreign piece goods, and general cargo. Five-tenths of them are said to return in ballast.
Hsiang-t'an (湘潭)— Man-chiang-hung (滿江紅)	1,800 to 3,000	\$1.60	3 to 4	20 to 28	These passenger vessels are built of hard-wood, and fitted up into several compartments or rooms, with windows in the sides, and used principally by officials for travelling. Occasionally they return from Hankow with general cargo.
Pa-kan (巴箏)	600 to 1,100	\$1.40	2 to 3	8 to 12	
Changsha (長沙)— Wu-chiang-tzu (烏江子); tao-pa-tzu (到巴子); huo-tzu (窩子) ..	200 to 500	\$1	2	4 to 7	Built at Hsiang-t'an (湘潭), of hard and soft wood, and carry to Hankow rice, paddy, and paper, returning to Changsha or Hsiang-t'an with raw cotton, matches, sugar, Foreign piece goods, kerosene oil, and general cargo. Six-tenths of these boats are said to return in ballast.

NAME	Capacity.	Cost of Building per Picul.	No. of Masts.	No. of Crew.	REMARKS.
	<i>Piculs.</i>				
Changsha pa-kan (長沙巴拿).....	600 to 1,100	\$1.40	2 to 3	8 to 12	These are passenger vessels, built of hard-wood, and fitted up into several moveable compartments or rooms, with windows in the sides, and used principally by officials for travelling. Occasionally they return from Hankow with Foreign piece goods and general cargo.
Héng-shan pa-kan (衡山巴拿).....	400 to 800	\$1.30	2 to 3	6 to 10	
Yung-chou pa-kan (永州巴拿).....	600 to 800	\$1.30	2	8 to 10	
Ma-yang pa-kan (麻陽巴拿).....	500 to 800	\$1.30	2	7 to 10	
Liu-yang ch'iu-tzu ch'uan (瀏陽秋子船).....	200 to 800	\$1	2	4 to 10	Built of hard and soft wood, at Hsiang-t'an (湘潭) and Liu-yang (瀏陽), and carry, from Liu-yang to Hankow, rice, paddy, hemp, grasscloth, fire-crackers, and paper; returning with wheat, beans, prepared tobacco, Foreign piece goods, sugar, and general cargo, mostly for Changsha. Five-tenths of them are said to return in ballast.
Changsha tiao-kou-tzu (長沙釣鉤子).....	1,700 to 3,000	\$1.60	3 to 4	18 to 28	Built at Hsiang-t'an, of hard-wood, and engaged in the salt trade. They load the salt at Shih-érh-yü (十二圩), a few miles above Chinkiang, for Changsha, Hsiang-t'an, I-yang, Ch'ang-té, and in the winter for Yochow city, returning from Changsha and Hsiang-t'an with coal, wood oil, and paper for Hankow or Nanking; if no cargo is offering, they return in ballast to Shih-érh-yü. Freight on salt from Shih-érh-yü (十二圩) to Hunan, 7½ c. 32 per picul, transshipment during low water included.
Héng-chou yen ch'uan hsiao-po (衡州鹽船小駁).....	1,000 to 1,900	\$1.50	3	16 to 20	Built at Hsiang-t'an, of hard-wood, and engaged in the same trade as the tiao-kou-tzu.
P'ing-chiang (平江)——					Built of hard and soft wood, at P'ing-chiang (平江), and engaged in general trade, loading at P'ing-chiang, for Hankow, tea, tea oil, medicines, and hemp; returning with kerosene oil, matches, sugar, piece goods, and general cargo. Seven-tenths of these boats return in ballast.
Tao-pa-tzu (到巴子).....	200 to 500	\$1	2	4 to 7	
Huo-tzu (窩子).....	300 to 600	\$1	2	5 to 8	
Ch'iu-tzu (秋子).....	300 to 400	\$1	2	5 to 6	
Chan-tzu (槎子).....	200 to 300	\$1	2	4 to 5	
P'ing-chiang tiao-kou-tzu (平江釣鉤子).....	1,500 to 1,800	\$1.60	3	14 to 20	Built at P'ing-chiang (平江), of hard-wood, and engaged in the salt trade. They load salt at Shih-érh-yü (十二圩), above Chinkiang, for P'ing-chiang; returning in ballast or with a part cargo of tea oil, tea, or hemp to Hankow, and from there to Shih-érh-yü in ballast, if no cargo is offering to some port on their route.

NAME	Capacity.	Cost of Building per Picul.	No. of Masts.	No. of Crew.	REMARKS.
	<i>Piculs.</i>				
Yochow (岳州)——					Built of hard and soft wood, at Yochow (岳州), and carry copper cash, hides, and old iron pans to Hankow, returning with sugar, cotton piece goods, and general cargo.
Hua-tzu (划子).....	100 to 300	\$1	1 to 2	2 to 5	
Ya-shao (鴛鴦).....	300 to 500	\$1	2	5 to 7	
Yochow (岳州)——					Built at Hsin-chiang (蕪湖), of the best soft-wood, and trade to Hankow, carrying paddy and rice, returning with kerosene oil, sugar, Foreign piece goods, and general cargo for Yochow. There are 1,247 of these boats, over 200 trading to Hankow and the rest running between various places in the interior, with passengers and whatever cargo they can pick up, returning to Yochow with general Native cargo.
Hsin-chiang ch'an-tzu (蕪湖船子); t'ung-pien-tzu (桐廬子); t'ung-tzu-k'o (桐子壳).....	100 to 300	\$0.90 to \$1	2	3 to 5	
Pao-ching-fu mao-pan ch'uan (寶慶府毛板船).....	800 to 1,000	60,000 cash*	2	6 to 11	These boats are built of tung-mu (松木), fastened with bamboo and iron nails, and are just strong enough to stand the voyage from Pao-ching-fu to Hankow, with coal in bulk, during fine weather; on the first sign of northerly wind or bad weather, they seek shelter. On reaching Hankow, the coal is discharged and the boat sold for 16,000 to 20,000 cash, and the masts, anchors, and ropes taken back to Pao-ching-fu (寶慶府) to be used again. The coal merchant, who is the owner, pays the crew for the voyage (11 men to I-yang (益陽) and six men to Hankow), 36,400 cash, food included. The freight on the coal thus costs him about 76 cash per picul.
Pao-ching-fu (寶慶府)——					These vessels are built at Pao-ching-fu (寶慶府), of hard-wood, and trade to Hankow, carrying coal, hides, cow and buffalo horns, medicines, rice, paddy, paper, steel, and pig iron, returning to Pao-ching-fu with seaweed, sugar, Foreign piece goods, kerosene oil, and general cargo.
Ch'iu-tzu ch'uan (秋子船).....	400 to 1,000	\$1.20	2 to 3	6 to 12	
Shu-huo-tzu (梳篦子).....	300 to 800	\$1.10	2 to 3	5 to 10	
Hsin-hua po ch'uan (新化駁船).....	200 to 300	\$0.95	2	4 to 5	Built at Hsin-hua (新化), and trade from there to Hankow with rice, paddy, and coal, returning with any cargo they can pick up for places en route, or in ballast.
An-hua shu-tzu ch'uan (安化梳子船).....	200 to 300	\$0.95	2	4 to 5	Built at I-yang, and trade from An-hua (安化) to Hankow, carrying tea, charcoal, paper, pig iron, and coal, returning with kerosene oil, sugar, Foreign piece goods, seaweed, and general cargo. Eight-tenths of them are said to return in ballast.

* Per vessel.

NAME	Capacity.	Cost of Building per Picul.	No. of Masts.	No. of Crew.	REMARKS.
I-yang (益陽)— Chi-pan-tzu (七板子); tung-kan-tzu (通竿子); tou-kan-tzu (斗竿子); changch'uan (長船); ch'an-tzu (簍子); tung-pien-tzu (桐扁子); kai-shao (開稍).	Piculs. 200 to 300	\$0.95	2	4 to 5	These vessels are built at I-yang (益陽), and trade from I-yang to Hankow, carrying rice, paddy, iron pans, ironware, paper, bamboos, tea, bamboo shoots, and small poles. When carrying iron pans and ironware, they are chartered, and get from 12,000 to 18,000 cash, according to the size of the boat. Five-tenths of them are said to return in ballast, and five-tenths carry sugar, kerosene oil, foreign piece goods, and general cargo.
Shên-chou (辰州)— Ma-yang ch'uan (麻陽船)..... Shên-tiao-tzu (辰條子).....	300 to 600 500 to 1,500	\$1 \$1.30	2 2 to 3	5 to 8 7 to 16	Built at Shên-chou (辰州) and Ch'ang-tê (常德), of hard and soft wood, and trade from Shên-chou to Hankow, carrying hides, tea oil, wood oil, nutgalls, potash, medicines, and hard-wood, returning with sugar, foreign piece goods, matches, seaweed, and general cargo. Five-tenths of these vessels are said to return in ballast.
Shên-chou shên ch'uan (辰州長船).....	1,500 to 2,000	\$1.40	3	16 to 22	Built of hard-wood, at Ch'ang-tê and Shên-chou, and engaged in the salt trade. They load salt at Shih-érh-yü, above Chinkiang, for Ch'ang-tê, and return with wood oil for Hankow; if no cargo is offering there for way ports, they proceed to Shih-érh-yü in ballast.
Ch'ang-tê (常德)— Pan ch'uan (飯船)..... Chin-shih (津市); po ch'uan (駁船)....	300 to 800 200 to 300	\$1 \$1	2 to 3 2	5 to 10 4 to 7	Built at Ch'ang-tê (常德), of hard and soft wood, and trade to Hankow with tea, tea oil, wood oil, animal tallow, white wax, nutgalls, varnish, lotus-nuts, potash, medicines, green alum, native cloth, kittysols, bean oil, cow and buffalo horns, cinnamon, cake-stuff, and paper, returning from Hankow with sugar, prepared tobacco, seaweed, foreign piece goods, kerosene oil, and general cargo.
Lin-hsiang (臨湘)— Hua-tzu (划子)..... Ya-shao (鴛鴦).....	200 500 to 800	\$0.90 \$1	2 2	3 10	Built at Hsin-yü-chou (新魚洲), Lin-hsiang-hsien (臨湘縣), of soft-wood, and trade to Hankow. They load tea during the 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th moons, at Yün-ch'ü (雲溪), Nieh-shih (蘄市), and Yang-lou-shih (羊樓司), for Hankow; returning with sugar, seaweed, foreign piece goods, kerosene oil, and general cargo for Lin-hsiang. After the tea season the ya-shaos run between Shasi (沙市) and Pai-lo-chü (白螺磯) with salt.

FREIGHT PAID TO NATIVE VESSELS FROM CHANGSHA, HSIANG-T'AN,
AND CH'ANG-TÊ TO HANKOW.

NAME OF GOODS.	Classifier.	CHANGSHA TO HANKOW.	HSIANG-T'AN TO HANKOW.	CH'ANG-TÊ TO HANKOW.
Rice.....	Picul	Cash. 50	Cash. 55	Cash. ...
Paddy.....	"	40	45	...
Clothing, old.....	Bale	900	1,000	...
Fire-crackers.....	Box	300
Ginger, fresh.....	Picul	40
Paper.....	Package	70	...	50
".....	Picul	80
Coal.....	"	...	60	...
Grasscloth.....	Package	160
China-ware.....	Picul	...	200	...
Hides, cow and buffalo.....	"	...	60	60
Steel.....	"	...	80	...
Iron, pig.....	"	...	60	...
Borax.....	"	...	100	...
Mats, straw.....	Package	...	30	...
Joss-stick powder.....	Picul	...	100	...
Bamboo shoots.....	Basket	...	70	...
Lotus-nuts.....	Box	...	70	...
Tobacco, leaf.....	Package	...	200	...
Iron pans.....	Hundred	...	800	...
Pewterware.....	Picul	...	200	...
Medicines.....	Package	...	120	...
".....	Picul	160
Tea.....	Half-chest	...	100*	100
Oil, wood.....	Tub	96
".....	Basket	80
" tea.....	"	80
Nutgalls.....	Package	160
Potash.....	Large tub	100
".....	Small tub	60
Cloth, Native.....	Bale	80
Varnish.....	Picul	130
Kittysols.....	Package	60
Green alum.....	Tub	100
White wax.....	Package	500

* A freight bonus on tea, of 60 cash per half-chest, is paid, if the passage is made from Hsiang-t'an to Hankow in 48 hours with a southerly wind; and 40 cash per half-chest, if made in 96 hours with a northerly wind.

FREIGHT PAID TO NATIVE VESSELS FROM HANKOW TO CHANGSHA,

HSIANG-T'AN, AND CH'ANG-T'Ê

Foreign Goods.

NAME OF GOODS.	Classifier.	HANKOW TO CHANGSHA.	HANKOW TO HSIANG-T'AN.	HANKOW TO CH'ANG-T'Ê.
		Cash.	Cash.	Cash.
Cotton and woollen piece goods and cotton yarn..	Case or Bale	300	320	340
Broadcloth.....	Case	290	300	320
Cotton prints and chintzes.....	"	200	220	240
Spanish stripes.....	Bale	100	120	140
Cotton lastings.....	Case	270	280	320
Berlin wool.....	"	220	240	260
Llama braid.....	"	220	240	260
Dyes.....	"	100	110	130
".....	"	200	220	240
Brass buttons.....	"	100	120	140
Kerosene oil.....	"	60	64	76
Iron nails.....	Tub	88	90	100
Needles.....	Package	130	140	160
Blankets.....	"	130	140	160
Matches.....	Case	240	280	300
Umbrellas.....	"	250	260	280
Candles.....	Package	58	60	70
Cotton handkerchiefs.....	Case	100	120	248
Hair-pins.....	"	120	130	140
Soap.....	Box	48	50	60
Glass, window.....	"	340	360	400
" tiles.....	Case of 400	400	400	400
Lamps and glass chimneys.....	Case	260	280	360
Japanese toys.....	"	90	100	120
Flour.....	Bag	40	46	50
Pepper.....	"	80	85	90
Straw hats.....	Package	100	120	140
Cotton ribbons.....	Basket	220	240	280
Silk ribbons.....	Package	100	110	120
" piece goods and satin.....	Picul	2,000	2,200	2,600
Long ells.....	Bale	220	240	260
Soochow fans.....	Case	240	260	280
Cotton, raw.....	Bale	180	200	...
Medicines.....	Picul	100	100	130
Brassware and gongs.....	"	80	85	90
Glassware, Native.....	Case	400	440	500
Beans and beancake, wheat and millet.....	Picul	40	44	...
Seaweed, cut.....	Box	50	60	70
" long.....	Package	110	120	160
Rattans.....	Bundle	30	32	40
Sugar, white and brown.....	Bag	110	110	120
" candy.....	Package	160	170	180
" ".....	"	80	85	90

Native Goods.

NAME OF GOODS.	Classifier.	HANKOW TO CHANGSHA.	HANKOW TO HSIANG-T'AN.	HANKOW TO CH'ANG-T'Ê.
		Cash.	Cash.	Cash.
Melon seeds.....	Picul	90	100	120
Dates, red.....	Bag	220	240	260
Fungus.....	"	85	90	100
Persimmons, dried.....	Package	85	90	100
Bamboo shoots, salt.....	"	100	120	150
Vermicelli.....	"	110	130	150
Sandalwood.....	Picul	100	110	120
Cuttle-fish.....	Package	120	120	160
Sharks fins and bicho de mar.....	Case	120	130	150
Fish maws.....	"	120	130	150
Hams.....	Basket	60	65	80
Vermilion.....	Case	86	90	100
Lung-ngans and lichees, dried.....	Box	60	70	80
Olives, fresh and salt.....	Tub or Package	90	100	100
Tobacco, prepared.....	Basket	160	160	200
Samshu.....	Jar	50	60	65
Oil, sesamum.....	Basket	120	140	150
Flour, ".....	"	200	220	240
Flour, bean.....	Bag	280	290	300
".....	"	160	170	180
Clams, dried.....	Box	80	85	95

(7.) NATIVE BANKS IN YOCHOW.—There are six Native banks in Yochow city. Yochow being a place of very small commercial importance, the banking facilities are very limited. The six banks referred to are, practically, cash shops, confining themselves mainly to exchange, and, as a rule, not issuing drafts on other places (*see* remarks under (s.)) or making loans. The rate charged by them on exchange is 3 mace per *Ta* 100, in addition to the tax of $3\frac{1}{2}$ cash on every tael exchanged which has to be paid to the Likin offices.

(s.) POSTAL HONGS.—There are in Yochow city four *hsin-chü* (信局), or postal hong, all of them being branch offices of large postal hong in Changsha. Their letter tariff is fixed according to the distance to be travelled, and irrespective of weight. The following statement shows the general rates charged per letter:—

	Cash.
From one <i>fu</i> to another, or on local letters	12
" " " passing one <i>fu</i>	16
" " " " two <i>fu</i>	20
" " " " three <i>fu</i>	24
" " " " four <i>fu</i>	28
To places outside the province (with the exception of Hankow, Hanyang, and Wuchang, to which the rate is 24 cash)	100

Postage on letters, when both sender and addressee are known to the letter hong, can be paid on arrival; otherwise, half the fee must be paid on despatch and half on delivery.

The postage on parcels, throughout the province, is 60 cash per catty; to other provinces, the rate varies from 100 to 200 cash per catty, if carried by water, and from 160 to 240 cash per catty overland. Postage must always be paid by the sender, the addressee paying "wine money" on receipt of his parcel.

The postal hong's make 12 despatches regularly during the month, increasing the number to 18 during the tea season. On mail days runners go round to all the principal business houses and collect their mails. The letters are then sorted, and the letter bags made up, each bag bearing a ticket showing the number of covers contained. On arrival at their destination, the bags are opened and the contents checked with the arrival memorandum. The letters are then stamped with the postal hong's mark, and handed to the letter-carriers for distribution.

Besides letters and parcels, the postal hong's forward money drafts and treasure, and in this branch of the business lies their principal source of profit. The following two tables show the rates charged for transmitting drafts and treasure, respectively, at the principal commercial centres in this province:—

DRAFTS: RATE CHARGED BY POSTAL HONGS PER Ta 1,000.

FROM	To Hupeh.	To Szechwan.	To Kiangsu.	To Kiangsi.	To Kwangtung.	To Yunnan.	To Kweichow.
	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta
Changsha.....	0.80	1.20	1.20	1	1.50	1.20	1.20
Hsiang-t'an.....	0.80	1.20	1.20	1	1.50	1.20	1.20
Ch'ang-té.....	1	1.20	1.50	1.20	1.50	1.80	1.50
Ching-shih.....	1	1.20	1.50	1.40	1.50	1.80	1.40

FROM	To Peking.	To Nanking.	To Shanghai.	To Changsha.	To Hsiang-t'an.	To Ch'ang-té.	To Ching-shih.
	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta
Changsha.....	2	1.20	1	...	0.20	0.30	0.30
Hsiang-t'an.....	2	1.20	1	0.20	...	0.30	0.40
Ch'ang-té.....	2	1.20	1.50	0.30	0.30	...	0.20
Ching-shih.....	2	1.40	1.60	0.30	0.40	0.20	...

TREASURE: RATE CHARGED BY POSTAL HONGS PER Ta 1,000.

FROM	To Hupeh.	To Szechwan.	To Kiangsu.	To Kiangsi.	To Kwangtung.	To Yunnan.	To Kweichow.
	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta
Changsha.....	15	30	22	20	25	30	20
Hsiang-t'an.....	15	30	22	20	25	30	20
Ch'ang-té.....	15	30	22	20	25	30	20
Ching-shih.....	15	30	22	20	25	30	20

FROM	To Peking.	To Nanking.	To Shanghai.	To Changsha.	To Hsiang-t'an.	To Ch'ang-té.	To Ching-shih.
	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta
Changsha.....	25	20	20	...	8	10	12
Hsiang-t'an.....	25	20	20	8	...	18	20
Ch'ang-té.....	25	20	20	10	18	...	8
Ching-shih.....	25	20	20	12	20	8	...

(L.)

(u.) Under the enlightened governorship of His Excellency CH'EN PAO-CH'EN (陳寶箴), instructors were engaged to drill the Hunanese forces according to Western methods, a Mint was set up in Changsha, and electric light installed. On the appointment of the present Governor, however, all these reforms were at once abolished, and nothing of the kind has since been attempted.

(v.) MISSIONS.—*Catholic Missions*.—1°. *Franciscan Mission*.—This mission was established at H'eng-chou more than 200 years ago; but I have been unable to obtain any information respecting it.

2°. *Augustinian Mission of Northern Hunan*.—This mission has been established in Hunan for more than 20 years, and, in spite of the obstinate resistance on the part of the officials shown to it until recently, is in a very flourishing condition. It has 16 branches, mostly in the districts of Yochow, Ch'ang-té, and Li-chou, directed by 20 European and two Native missionaries. There is a college belonging to the mission for advanced pupils, seven schools for small boys, and five for small girls, also an orphanage capable of receiving several hundred foundlings. The mission has about 2,000 converts.

Protestant Missions.—1°. *China Inland Mission*.—This mission commenced its work in Hunan 27 years ago. In June 1875 a house was rented in Yochow, but within four days the missionary and his helpers were driven out, and for 20 years no attempt was made to re-establish the mission in this city. In 1886 a house was obtained near the Kweichow border, but after three months this also had to be given up; and the missionary in charge, for five long years, was transferred from place to place in Hunan, without a house to call his own, the hardships

endured during this period causing his early death. In 1898 the mission secured a firmer footing in Hunan, taking as its sphere of work the western half of the province. Ch'ang-tê was opened early in 1898, but in 1900 all Foreigners had to leave; returning in 1901, they found everything quiet and the people very friendly. The China Inland Mission hopes to establish a chain of stations right through to the capital of Kweichow, and it is only scarcity of workers that prevents the work of opening new branches from being commenced at once. There are seven members of the mission residing in the prefectures of Changsha, Ch'ang-tê, and Shên-chou. The Native church members number about 25; but as regards the number of converts and enquirers, I have been unable to obtain any information. This mission has, as yet, no institutions of any kind in Hunan.

2°. *London Mission*.—This mission, having its head-quarters in Yochow, was in touch with Hunan for many years before any actual work was accomplished and before members of the mission were established in the province. In 1897 Dr. GRIFFITH JOHN visited Hêng-chou and formally started the work of the mission in that city. Since 1897 the mission has made great strides, and is now represented in every department of Hêng-chou prefecture and in two departments of Yung-chou. The work is being extended along the great trade routes to Kwangtung and Kwangsi. The mission premises in Hêng-chou have been twice destroyed, in 1898 and in 1900, when all the missionary buildings in the prefecture were completely wrecked. Compensation, however, was obtained, and the rebuilding of all property destroyed is now actively proceeding. The Yochow head establishment was opened, by Dr. GRIFFITH JOHN and Mr. GREIG, in 1899. The staff consists of Mr. GREIG, Dr. PEAKE (who has charge of a hospital and dispensary attached to the mission), nine Native preachers, and six colporteurs. The baptised members of the mission number about 300, but the enrolled enquirers amount to several thousand, most of them belonging to Hêng-chou prefecture. The mission devotes its attention entirely to the eastern half of the province.

Other Protestant missions have recently settled in Ch'ang-tê, Changsha, and Hsiang-t'an without opposition from the authorities; they are, however, all in their infancy, as regards their work in Hunan.

(w.) *GUILDS*.—Owing to the scarcity of merchants from other provinces residing in the city of Yochow, there is at present only one guild established here; this is called Wan Shou Kung (萬壽宮), and belongs to the Kiangsi merchants. The Kiangnan merchants own a good plot of land, bordering on the lake, outside the west gate of the city, but no building has as yet been erected there. The Yochow merchants have established a guild-house in Peking, and also, together with the Ch'ang-tê merchants, in the provincial capital of Kansuh. The rules and regulations of these associations differ in no material degree, as far as my information goes, from those of the guilds in Hankow commented on in the last Decennial Report.

(x.) The following are the principal of the numerous celebrated officials from this province holding high positions:—

LIU K'UN-I (劉坤一), Viceroy of the Liang Kiang, a native of Hsin-ning (新甯縣), in Pao-ch'ing-fu; foremost among celebrated officials from this province, and the recognised leader of the "Hunan Party."

WEI KUANG-TAO (魏光燾), Viceroy of Yunnan and Kweichow, a native of Shao-yang (邵陽縣), in Pao-ch'ing-fu.

CHU HUNG-CHI (程鴻禎), President and Associate Minister of the Foreign Office, a native of Shan-hua (善化縣), in Chang-sha-fu.

CHANG PAI-HSI (張百熙), a native of Changsha city, President of the Board of Civil Office and President of the Peking University.

NIEN CH'Y-KUEI (聶緝槩), Governor of Anhwei, a native of Hêng-shan (衡山縣), in Hêng-chou-fu.

LI HSING-JUI (李興銳), Governor of Kiangsi, a native of Liu-yang (瀏陽縣), in Chang-sha-fu.

WANG CHIH-CH'UN (王之春), former Governor of Anhwei, a native of Ching-ch'uan (清泉縣), in Hêng-chou-fu.

WANG HSIEN-CH'EN (王先謙), a native of Shan-hua (善化縣), former Literary Chancellor of Kiangnan, at present President of the Yo-lo College at Changsha.

YIN SHOU-MING (尹綬銘), Literary Chancellor of Shantung, a native of Ch'a-ling sub-prefecture (茶陵州).

HUANG CHÜN-LUNG (黃均隆), Literary Chancellor of Hupeh, a native of Hsiang-t'an (湘潭縣), in Chang-sha-fu.

T'ANG P'ING-CHÊN (湯聘珍), a native of Shan-hua (善化縣), former Fantai of Shantung; *T'uan-lien Ta-chên* of Hunan by special edict.

The following two high military officials, natives of Hunan, came to the fore during the Taiping Rebellion, and are worthy of mention:—

TS'AO CHIH-CHUNG (曹志忠), a native of Hsiang-hsiang (湘鄉縣), Provincial Commander-in-Chief of Fukkien.

LO HSIAO-TUNG (羅孝暹), a native of Ch'ên-chou (郴州), Provincial Commander-in-Chief of Kweichow.

(y.) and (z.).

P. C. HANSSON,

Assistant-in-Charge.

CUSTOM HOUSE,
YCHOW, 31st December 1901.

HANKOW.

DECENNIAL REPORT, 1892-1901.

(a.) The Decennial Report for the period 1882-91 gave a geographical and historical description of the port of Hankow; it is not therefore necessary to repeat these particulars, but, instead, it will be better to pass on at once, and see how the port has developed and still is developing.

In years gone by, Hankow was chiefly known as the place which supplied a very large share of the world's Tea consumption, and although, from its position and with its splendid water communication, its importance eventually, as a commercial centre, must have been foreseen by those who were interested in the place in its earliest days, still it is only within the last few years that people have awakened to the fact that Hankow is the centre of large commercial enterprise and rapidly developing trade. It is, perhaps, difficult to realise that the port is 600 miles from the sea, and that it is accessible for more than half the year to vessels of great size and deep draught, and is, indeed, visited by merchant vessels and men-of-war of considerable tonnage. In the late autumn and winter months the water falls considerably, and vessels of draught greater than 10 or 12 feet are unable to trade to the port.

In general appearance, the port and its neighbour, Wuchang—the capital city of the province of Hupeh, and seat of government of the well-known Viceroy *CHANG Kung-pao*,—has considerably changed during the period under review. On the Wuchang side, a well-built embankment, extending up and down river some distance, has greatly improved the appearance of the place; but it is on the Hankow side that the most startling changes are to be seen. Since the last Decennial Report was published, three new Foreign Concessions—Russian, French, and German—have been added, and where, a few years ago, one saw nothing but paddy fields and squalid Chinese huts, there are now well-laid roads and imposing Foreign buildings. These new Concessions, added to the British Concession, give the port a continuous bounded frontage of 2 miles.

As far back as 1861 the British Government was granted a Concession, with an area of some 290,832 square yards and a river frontage of over half a mile. The Concession, adjoining as it does the Native city, is most favourably situated from the point of view of trade. At a cost of *Tta* 200,000 (then, £50,000), a Bund was completed in 1865, and the Concession carefully laid out. Well-built dwelling and business houses rapidly sprang up, and for over 30 years merchants of all nationalities resided and traded in this, the only Foreign quarter. Even now, with the new Concessions, there have been but few deserters from this quarter.

Lately the British Concession has been extended, and now runs back to the city wall, which is gradually disappearing. This extension covers an area of some 247,000 square yards; and the land-owners are filling in their properties very rapidly, and already many houses

have been built and roads laid. Under certain rules and regulations, it is proposed to allow respectable Chinese to live in this Concession extension, and ere long it will no doubt be covered with houses and business establishments.

The Concession, and its extension, is governed by a Municipal Council of six residents; but the British Consul General is really the ruling authority. A police force of 32 Sikhs, 38 Chinese, with 2 detectives and one interpreter, all under the orders of a superintendent and his assistant, keeps order in the Concession. Minor offences against the law are dealt with at the Mixed Court, which is held every morning at the Consulate General. The revenue is derived chiefly from the Land and House Taxes collected. A 7 per cent. loan for Fr 100,000 was raised in 1901, issued in the form of debentures, and over-subscribed to the extent of 40 per cent. This is, practically, the only serious liability of this prosperous Concession.

The dwelling and business houses on the Bund are of an imposing description. The Roman Catholic cathedral, the cathedral of the American Episcopal Church, and the Greek church are buildings also to be noticed. To celebrate the 60th year of the reign of Her Majesty the late Queen of Great Britain, a Public Hall was erected in the grounds of the Hankow Club, at a cost of Fr 15,000. The hall has a good stage in it and a well-laid floor, and all public entertainments, such as dances and theatricals, are given there.

The Russian Concession adjoins the British, and it was conceded in 1896, but little or nothing has been done to develop it. The Bund, which is 772 yards long, is only just completed. This Bund cost Fr 215,000, or, at the present rate of exchange, some £27,000. The area of the Concession is about 247,000 square yards. A small police force, of 5 Cossacks and 9 Chinese, is employed to keep order in the Concession.

In June 1896 the French were given a Concession, adjoining the Russian. Its area is some 137,000 square yards, with a river frontage of a little over a quarter of a mile. Many Foreign houses and shops have been built in this Concession already, and there is every sign of life and great prosperity in it. The Bund, with its splendidly built embankment, which cost Fr 150,000, was opened in May 1901. The French Consul, assisted by three Municipal Councillors, manages the Concession, and there is a police force of 23 Chinese constables.

The German Government obtained its Concession, which comes next to the French, in October 1895, and it has an area of over 506,000 square yards. A syndicate has undertaken to develop this Concession, and already considerable sums have been spent in raising the ground above flood level and making roads—some remarkably fine ones are already opened to traffic. The Bund, nearly three-quarters of a mile long, has a strong embankment, costing over Fr 260,000. A few houses have already been built, and no doubt ere many months have passed many more will be begun.

In all four Concessions a small Land and Rice Tax is paid annually to the Chinese authorities.

Beyond the German Concession is the ground conceded to the Japanese, but, so far, no attempt has been made in any way to take it up. It has a river frontage of over 400 yards and an area of 147,000 square yards.

The Belgian Government is said to wish to obtain a Concession beyond the Japanese, but nothing definite has been settled.

Thus, it will be seen that, whilst up to the last two or three years only an area of some 290,000 square yards was occupied by Foreign residents, now no less than 1,428,489 square yards is actually laid out, or in process of being laid out, as a Foreign quarter. Modern improvements are gradually coming in: the telephone is already working, and soon, no doubt, the electric light will be universally used. Beyond the limits of the Japanese Concession, the river frontage, to an extent of over 1,000 yards, has already been purchased by Foreigners. Then comes the Pei-Han Railway depôt, with a bunded frontage of about 1,235 yards. Already large warehouses have been built, and it is in contemplation to construct a wharf, or wharves, where ocean-going steamers can load and discharge cargoes. Two imposing Oil-tank premises occupy ground lower down the river, one belonging to the Shell Transport and Trading Company, and the other to the Royal Dutch Petroleum Company: tank steamers bring Oil in bulk from Sumatra to these tanks. Thus it will be seen with what vast strides the port of Hankow has developed. The place is no longer the ordinary Treaty port, but has become a commercial centre of a great country. The possibilities of further development are unbounded, and when, with a network of railways added to the already excellent water communication, Hankow is brought into closer touch with the world, there will be practically no limit to the importance it will have both politically and commercially.

Although during the decade China has passed through very troublous times—the war with Japan, in 1894-95; the Boxer troubles of 1900,—Hankow and neighbourhood have been perfectly free from any disturbance. Unrest has, of course, prevailed, but the wise and firm policy of His Excellency CHANG CHIH-TUNG, the Viceroy of Hupeh and Hunan, has prevented any actual outbreak; and whilst in many parts of the Empire Foreigners lost their lives in the most cruel manner, all who have resided in this district have enjoyed immunity from acts of violence. The record is one to be proud of, and one Foreigners should gratefully recognise.

These prefatory remarks will have shown that advance and prosperity have been the keynotes of the past 10 years, and the remarks to follow will, in a more detailed manner, show how this flourishing condition of affairs is to be accounted for.

(b.) An enormous increase has to be reported in the value of the trade of the port. In 1892 the gross value of the trade was Hk. Fr 48,500,000; in 1901 it was 86,900,000. A table of net values is appended, and a glance at it will show satisfactory results.

NET VALUES OF TRADE, 1892-1901.

—	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	TOTAL
Net Foreign Imports.....	Hk. Fr 11,905,648	Hk. Fr 10,723,545	Hk. Fr 10,985,275	Hk. Fr 13,154,362	Hk. Fr 14,193,537	Hk. Fr 17,172,351	Hk. Fr 16,019,721	Hk. Fr 21,666,827	Hk. Fr 19,743,376	Hk. Fr 25,685,954	Hk. Fr 161,250,596
Net Native Imports.....	5,432,109	4,688,199	4,930,691	6,024,248	6,663,411	8,007,897	6,798,073	8,071,839	5,200,302	7,161,102	62,977,871
Net original Exports.....	19,563,940	23,850,237	23,218,827	25,328,892	23,449,545	24,540,382	30,953,651	37,463,395	32,106,961	29,372,642	269,848,472
TOTAL.....	36,901,697	39,261,981	39,134,793	44,507,502	44,306,493	49,720,630	53,771,445	67,202,061	57,050,639	62,219,698	494,076,939

In 1892 the total net value was *Hk.Tta* 36,900,000, and in 1901 a net value of *Hk.Tta* 62,200,000 was recorded. It is under all headings that these increases have to be noted. In 1892 the value of the Foreign Import trade was *Hk.Tta* 11,900,000; in 1901 the value was *Hk.Tta* 25,600,000. Native Imports rose from *Hk.Tta* 5,400,000 in 1892 to *Hk.Tta* 7,100,000 in 1901; and Exports were valued at *Hk.Tta* 19,500,000 in 1892 and *Hk.Tta* 29,300,000 in 1901. The most prosperous year was 1899, before the Boxer troubles came on; and during those troubles—1900—trade was very seriously affected, but quickly recovered itself. The average annual net value of Hankow's trade was *Hk.Tta* 49,000,000, an increase of nearly 40 per cent. over the average annual value of the last period reviewed.

The following table gives the estimated proportion of the share taken by each flag in the port's trade during the first and last year of the decade:—

FLAG.	1892.				1901.			
	Tonnage employed.	Total Foreign and Coast Trade.	Transit Trade.	Total Dues and Duties.	Tonnage employed.	Total Foreign and Coast Trade.	Transit Trade.	Total Dues and Duties.
	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.
British.....	62.87	60.63	55.35	58.74	43.41	48.79	9.97	45.07
American.....	0.07	0.02	19.79	1.23	0.75	1.02	29.21	1.91
German.....	0.31	0.17	20.74	10.35	0.02	11.50
French.....	2.11	0.12
Swedish and Norwegian.....	0.45	0.22	...	0.30	0.14	0.01	...	0.02
Russian.....	1.85	3.22	...	11.40	1.83	2.86	...	16.12
Austrian.....	5.07	3.00	...	3.96	0.16	0.47	33.19	1.64
Belgian.....	0.04	...
Japanese.....	0.11	0.02	10.46	6.58	...	5.06
Chinese.....	29.27	32.72	24.86	24.37	22.51	29.92	25.46	18.56
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

It will be noticed that the German and Japanese flags take a prominent position in this table. It is only quite lately that these two flags have been seen, to any appreciable extent, on the Yangtze, and, from all appearances, it looks as if they intended to make a bid for even a yet larger share of the trade, which up to quite lately was carried on under the British—the pioneer flag in the development of this region—and Chinese flags.

Similar encouraging results are shown under the heading of shipping (see Appendix No. 1). During the period now being reviewed three new lines of steamers have come on the river—one Japanese and two German,—adding 11 steamers to those regularly running at the time the last Report was written. The new companies are the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, the Hamburg-America Yangtze line, and the Norddeutscher Lloyd Yangtze line. The 11 steamers owned by these companies were all built in the Far East—the German steamers in Shanghai and the Japanese in Japan.

Under the British flag a total increase in tonnage is seen; but the decline in the Tea trade, as far as Great Britain is concerned, has led to the gradual disappearance in these waters of

large British ocean steamers loading Tea for London direct. In 1892 four such steamers left with cargoes of Tea; in 1900 and 1901 no such steamer was put on the berth. The direct trade in Tea carried on by the Russian Volunteer Fleet has, on the other hand, increased, and several of these fine steamers leave every year for Odessa direct.

There has been great improvement in the service of steamers between Hankow and Ichang, and at time of writing seven steamers keep up communication with the ports on the Upper Yangtze. Here it may not be out of place to record the arrival in these waters of several light-draught river gun-boats—under the British, German, and French flags,—for service on the Tungting Lake, up the River Han, and at Chungking. The rapids above Ichang, which brought the German s.s. *Suihsiang* to an untimely end in 1900, have been successfully passed, on several occasions, by British gun-boats, and on one occasion by a French river gun-boat.

In 1896 and 1899 the Swedish and Norwegian flag took a somewhat prominent position in the shipping table. In those years steamers under that flag were employed in the direct trade to Swatow, which was inaugurated in this decade; but, ultimately, the charterers—German merchants—purchased the vessels, and changed the flag to German. Then again, as an experiment, steamers under this flag were chartered to take Teas for Russian Manchuria direct to Vladivostock. The experiment was, apparently, not successful, as it was abandoned, and the old plan of sending such Tea to Shanghai by river steamers, and thence up North, was reverted to.

The Chinese flag shows up well in the shipping table, the China Merchants Steam Navigation Company possessing four steamers for the lower river and two for the upper river trade. The increase in the number of sailing vessels, lorchas, and chartered junks under this flag has been steady during the last 10 years.

In the earliest part of the decade the Austrian flag figured, it being carried by two river steamers trading between Hankow and Shanghai. In 1894 these steamers passed into British hands, and the Austrian flag has since only been seen when occasional ocean steamers carrying material for the Pei-Han Railway have visited the port.

There are 30 river steamers (23 on the Lower and seven on the Upper Yangtze) running regularly on the river, and two ocean steamers trading between Hankow and Swatow, and these, plus Tea steamers, steamers arriving with Coal and Railway Materials, lorchas, and junks, have brought the grand total of the tonnage entered and cleared, during the period now reviewed, to 18,273,000 tons.

Through freight to London for Tea was £2 5s. per ton in 1892; in 1895 it fell to £2 2s. 6d.; but at present it is about £2 17s. 6d. For general cargo, £2 12s. 6d. is quoted. The rise in the price of Coal is said to have affected freights. The several shipping companies which for so many years have constituted what is known as the "Conference" are still in combination, and undoubtedly have a practical monopoly of the carrying trade to ports abroad. In spite of new lines having been started on the river, local freights have not been reduced. The rate to Shanghai for general cargo is *Tta* 2.60 per ton.

The two Oil-tank installations have already been referred to. The first, that of the Shell Transport and Trading Company, of London, was opened early in 1901, and at the end of

that year the tanks of the Royal Dutch Petroleum Company were ready for use. The tanks, four in all, have an average capacity of some 10,000 tons of Oil. Several large tank steamers have already visited the port with Oil from Borneo; the largest quantity which has, up to date, arrived in one steamer is 1,400,000 gallons.

In 1898 Rules and Regulations for Inland Navigation were framed, and although they may be said to have been but provisional, they were largely availed of, and steam-launches in ever-increasing number have profited by the privilege of calling at inland ports, carrying large numbers of passengers. Yochow, at the mouth of the Tungting Lake, was at first the principal port of call; but in November 1899 Yochow became a Treaty port, and, in consequence, many launches now make it the starting-point for inland trips. Some 20 launches are regularly employed in this trade, and places above and below Hankow and on the Han River are visited. During 1901 nearly 90,000 passengers were carried by these launches. The Hunan Steamship Company, owned by Japanese, is reported to have been floated, and is intended to run light-draught steamers from Hankow, through the Tungting Lake, to Changsha and Ch'ang-tâ. It will be safe to prophesy that ere many months have passed the rich province of Hunan will be opened up by steamers trading regularly to its ports.

A general increase in the demand for Foreign goods has to be noticed. Cotton and Woollen Piece Goods are every day finding greater favour with the Natives; but all this trade is in the hands of Chinese firms who purchase their goods from Shanghai, although a Belgian firm last year, with, it is said, satisfactory results, imported goods direct from Europe—chiefly Silk Ribbons.

In Cotton Yarn considerable increase is shown: in 1892 only 80,000 piculs were imported, increasing annually to 284,000 piculs in 1899; in 1900 this article fell to 226,000 piculs, but picked up again in 1901, when 250,000 piculs arrived.

Brown Sugar came forward to the amount of 52,900 piculs in 1892; after that a steady yearly increase has to be noted, and in 1901 82,400 piculs were imported. White and Refined Sugar also arrived in increased quantity, and now some 93,000 piculs arrive annually.

The trade in Kerosene Oil has developed, with astonishing rapidity, into one of the most important articles of Import, demonstrating the eagerness of the Chinese to adopt useful and cheap Foreign articles. In the last Report over 5,000,000 gallons of this Oil were reported as the maximum yearly importation; by leaps and bounds of millions of gallons, the importation increased yearly to a total, for 1901, of 16,767,895 gallons, valued at *Hk.Ta* 2,107,713.

In January 1901 Messrs. ARNHOLD, KARBERG, & Co., the local agents for the Shell Transport and Trading Company, erected, at Tan-shui-chih, about 5 miles below the Settlements, two Kerosene Oil tanks, each capable of containing 837,374 gallons of Oil; Messrs. MEYER & Co., agents for the Royal Dutch Petroleum Company, have just finished two other similar tanks, adjoining the premises of the Shell Transport Company. The capacity of these tanks is 562,436 gallons each. Into these depôts the tank steamers discharge their cargoes in bulk, and it is then canned for the market in tins constructed on the premises. In years gone by American Kerosene monopolised this trade. With the advent of Russian Oil and bulk Oil

in China, competition ensued, and the consumption of Devoe's brand diminished; but last summer the American Standard Oil Company established an agency at Hankow, and have regained some of the ground lost.

The prices ruling at present for Kerosene are as follows:—

			<i>Hankow Ta</i>
Devoe's, in cases	Per Case of 10 Gallons	1.68	
Russian, in bulk	Per 10 Gallons	1.12	
" in cases	Per Case of 10 Gallons	1.49	
" " (locally packed)	"	1.43	
Sumatra, in bulk	Per 10 Gallons	1.12	
" in cases	Per Case of 10 Gallons	1.48	
" " (locally packed)	"	1.43	

The following table shows the net yearly importation of this illuminant at Hankow, for the years 1892 to 1901:—

YEAR.	AMERICAN.		RUSSIAN.				SUMATRA.				TOTAL.	
	In Cases.		In Cases.		In Bulk.		In Cases.		In Bulk.		Quantity.	Value.
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Hk.Ta</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Hk.Ta</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Hk.Ta</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Hk.Ta</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Hk.Ta</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Hk.Ta</i>
1892.....	4,111,050	397,350	626,000	56,961	4,737,050	454,311
1893.....	7,678,520	748,492	425,000	39,594	8,103,520	788,086
1894.....	6,464,396	679,478	1,100,700	101,921	7,565,096	781,399
1895.....	4,248,990	490,568	2,773,150	264,699	7,022,140	755,267
1896.....	5,813,670	771,593	6,464,970	733,891	322,320	80,729	12,600,960	1,546,213
1897.....	7,757,940	1,074,131	8,130,000	1,004,937	1,186,300	144,763	17,074,240	2,223,831
1898.....	6,753,400	935,262	4,328,600	499,387	4,973,000	499,701	16,055,000	1,934,350
1899.....	3,884,170	542,810	7,138,400	931,061	274,000	32,932	11,296,570	1,506,803
1900.....	2,321,180	387,374	9,804,300	1,577,769	728,900	99,858	12,854,380	2,065,001
1901.....	3,942,080	609,440	6,686,600	888,865	820,343	81,097	2,435,250	246,272	2,883,622	282,039	16,767,895	2,107,713
TOTAL.....	52,975,396	6,636,498	47,477,720	6,099,085	820,343	81,097	9,919,770	1,064,255	2,883,622	282,039	114,076,851	14,162,974

Of Native Imports, Hemp Bags show a large increase; for whereas in 1892 they were imported to a total value of *Hk.Ta* 63,000, in 1899 they reached *Hk.Ta* 172,000, falling off a little, to *Hk.Ta* 145,000, in 1901.

The remark made in the last Report, that the demand for Raw Cotton was diminishing, can be now repeated; for although, with yearly ups and downs, it reached from 31,600 piculs, the total quantity imported in 1892, to 122,000 piculs, in 1897, it has since yearly decreased, and only 1,700 piculs were imported during 1901. Cotton Yarn is supplanting this commodity, the weavers preferring the ready-made Yarn to the Raw Cotton, which necessitates extra work.

It is curious how certain commodities obtain a hold in certain markets. Indian Cotton Yarn, which had a total importation of 248,900 piculs in 1901, was almost all re-exported to Chungking, leaving for local consumption only 60,400 piculs; but the Japanese Yarn, of which 194,400 piculs were imported in the same year, had a re-exportation of only 8,300 piculs, leaving for local consumption 186,000 piculs; of English Cotton Yarn, some 3,500 piculs only were imported in 1901, and almost all was kept for local use. The price of these commodities must have some influence in the increased demand for certain of these goods in preference to others. The market value of English Cotton Yarn, in 1901, was *Hk.Tta* 32 per picul; that of Bombay, *Hk.Tta* 31 per picul; and Japanese, *Hk.Tta* 27 per picul; Native Raw Cotton cost *Hk.Tta* 16 per picul; and Shanghai mills Cotton Yarn, of which there was a total importation of 14,269 piculs in 1901, *Hk.Tta* 25 per picul.

Salt is considered one of the most important articles of commerce of the province. Salt wells are worked at Ying-ch'eng (應城), in Hupeh; but a larger amount than that produced being necessary for the large population, it is imported from the coast and from the Salt wells of Szechwan. It being a government monopoly, strict supervision is ever present, and employment is given, it is said, to as many as 100,000 men in the various Salt gabelles, farms, and junks of this province. There are said to be some 42 different taxations, under sundry government, charitable, and other names, imposed on Salt before it can be brought to the consumer.

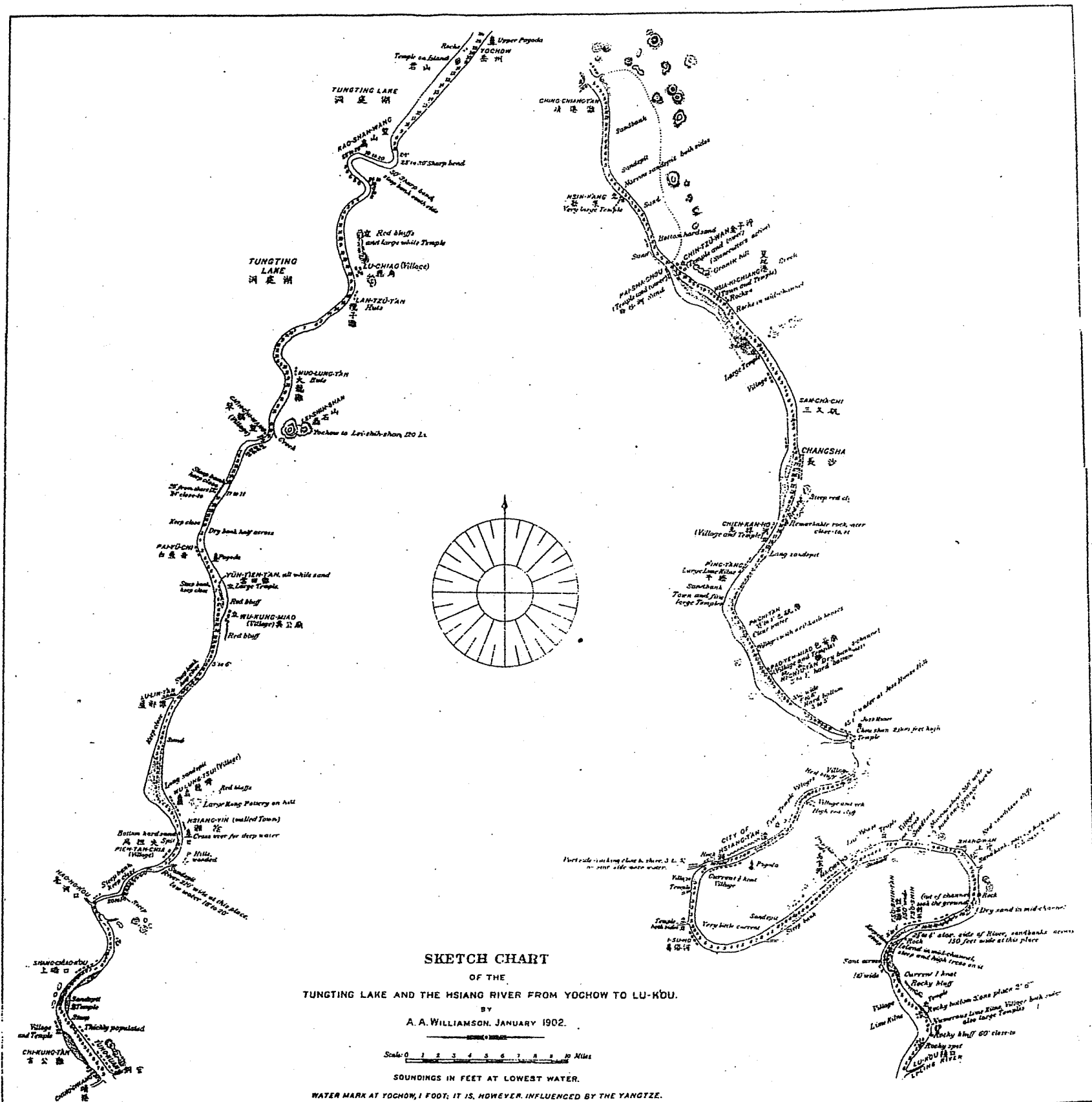
The total quantity of Salt consumed in the province of Hupeh is estimated at 2,400,600 piculs a year, viz.: Huai or sea Salt, 1,038,000 piculs; Szechwan well Salt, 1,136,600 piculs; Hupeh Salt, 8,000 piculs; and contraband Salt of all kinds (say 10 per cent.), 218,200 piculs. The total taxation on Salt in the province amounts yearly to *K'u-p'ing Tta* 3,777,430, derived from the following Salts: Huai Salt, *K'u-p'ing Tta* 1,452,000; Chuan Salt (Szechwan well Salt), *K'u-p'ing Tta* 2,316,200; Hupeh well Salt, *K'u-p'ing Tta* 9,230.*

Undoubtedly, this, one of the most important necessities of life, is over-taxed, especially as it is well known that, for the majority of Chinese, the only condiment they have with their rice is "a pinch" of Salt. The estimated population of Hupeh is 24 millions, which will give a Salt consumption of 10 catties per head per year of the quantity imported.

Huai Salt is reported to cost at the sea-beach factories about 444 cash only per picul. The total amount of taxation paid per picul on this quality of Salt is *K'u-p'ing Tta* 1.59; and adding the freight and general charges, it will be seen that, selling it at 54 to 56 cash per catty, which is the retail price of the day fixed by the authorities, little profit is left to the Salt merchant.

After the China-Japan war, and to be able to pay the indemnity, the Chinese Government made an Anglo-German loan of £16,000,000, guaranteed by the Salt revenue, and gave the supervision of the collection to the Imperial Maritime Customs. In 1898 a special office was established in Hankow, which collects annually *K'u-p'ing Tta* 500,000, to which sum has to be added *Shanghai Tta* 250,000 paid annually to this office by the Ichang Salt Gabelle. From the 30th of November 1901, in order to meet the demand made on the province in connexion with the Boxers troubles and indemnity, a new taxation of 2 cash per catty was imposed on all Salt sold in Hupeh.

* *K'u-p'ing Tta* 100 = *Shanghai Tta* 107.143.



Mention has been made of the Ying-ch'êng Salt wells. These are situated in the hills north and west of the district town of Ying-ch'êng, in the prefecture of Tê-an (德安) of this province. The annual product, some 8,000 piculs, of these brine wells is very bitter, and partakes of the nature of gypsum, being also called *shih-kao-yen* (石膏鹽). The taxation imposed at these mines is 3,300 cash, collected each time a 24 hours permit is issued. The retail price of this Salt is about 40 cash per catty.

Beancake, of which in 1892 only 24,400 piculs were exported, increased every year, reaching 822,600 piculs in 1900, but fell off to 535,300 piculs in 1901. Coal, which in 1892 showed 44,100 tons as the total exported, increased to 74,100 tons in 1901. Gypsum also showed a higher figure—from 144,500 piculs in 1892 to 337,100 piculs in 1901. Of Rice, a large quantity was shipped to Shanghai and Chinkiang during 1892, as the crops in those regions failed, the total exports in that year being 1,275,200 piculs; but in 1895, the crop in this province and Hunan having, in turn, failed, a large amount of grain had to be imported from Chinkiang; in 1898 41,700 piculs were again exported, the next year 229,800 piculs, and in 1900 it reached to a total of 533,200 piculs; but in 1899 the export of Rice was prohibited, and only 1,500 piculs were exported in 1900, and 5,200 piculs in 1901. Leaf Tobacco advanced during the decade, from 50,000 piculs exported in 1892 to 123,000 piculs in 1898, falling off somewhat in after years, 101,500 piculs only being exported in 1901. Wood Poles, one of the Exports of Hankow, showed well during the period under review: in 1892 276,800 were shipped, but in 1901 a total of 497,100 were exported.

The following articles, although exported to Shanghai, are known to have been for ultimate transshipment to Foreign countries:—Antimony Ore began to be shipped in 1895, when 1,008 piculs were exported; it went on increasing annually, reaching in 1900 the total of 73,135 piculs, but receded the next year to 55,507 piculs, with a value of *Hk.Tā* 127,187. Bristles to a total quantity of 2,035 piculs were exported in 1892, increasing yearly, and reaching a total of 5,990 piculs in 1901, with a value of *Hk.Tā* 232,889. Egret Feathers began to be exported in 1898, when 754 piculs were shipped; the next year the export increased to 1,206 piculs; in 1900, the demand having somewhat diminished, on account of change of fashion, the total amount exported was 756 piculs, and in 1901 only 286 piculs were sent away. The trade in Furs—Skins and Clothing,—which up to 1900 was not very important, increased very considerably during the Boxer troubles, being diverted to this port from Tientsin; Foreign firms are now paying special attention to the trade, and it will very likely largely increase, especially when the railway is completed.

Hides constitute one of the principal articles of the trade of the port. Both Cow and Buffalo Hides are in great demand in Europe and America, and this has enhanced the price; for whereas at the beginning of the decade the price ruling for Cow Hides was *Tā* 10.90 per picul, as an average, and that of Buffalo Hides was about *Tā* 7.60 per picul, in 1898 as much as *Tā* 19.50 had to be paid for the former and *Tā* 9.75 for the latter. The 1901 quotations were *Tā* 20 for Cow Hides and *Tā* 12.50 for Buffalo Hides. But little profit, at these rates, is left to the merchant. The increase in price paid does not seem to have affected the quantity of exports of this article, for whereas in 1892 only 50,000 piculs were exported, it rose gradually

to 162,635 piculs in 1901. The Hides are dried and undergo a preliminary cure at this port, and are exported in bales of 10 piculs. The demand for these Hides comes chiefly from the United States and the Continent of Europe.

Hemp, Musk, and Silk have also been exported in large quantities to Foreign markets; and heavy increases have also to be noticed in the following articles:—Wood Oil, largely used to manufacture varnishes, has risen from 284,000 piculs in 1892 to 335,000 piculs in 1899, but receded to 280,000 piculs in 1901; Sesamum Seed Oil, from 8,400 piculs in 1892 to 18,200 piculs in 1901; Sesamum Seed, from 45,200 piculs in 1892 to 453,000 piculs in 1901; Vegetable Tallow, from 139,000 piculs in 1892 to 200,000 piculs in 1901. The trade in many of these items will be greatly benefited as soon as the Pei-Han Railway is completed.

During the period under review a very serious decline in the Tea trade has to be recorded. It is a melancholy, but true, fact that the leaf which once held such a firm hold on the markets of the world is gradually being ousted by Indian and Ceylon Teas. The Chinese growers have no one but themselves to thank for this, as they have turned a deaf ear to all advice, and refused to adopt better methods for cultivation and manufacture. This and heavy taxation have done their work of destruction, and it will be a difficult matter to build up this valuable trade, which seems now on the verge of destruction. Great Britain, which in former years called for China Teas in great quantity, has practically ceased to ask for them; and whereas, but a few years ago, several large steamers left Hankow for England direct, deeply laden with Tea, during the last two years no direct steamer left, and but little was sent to Shanghai for subsequent reshipment. Thirty years ago China supplied the world with 86 per cent. of the Tea it consumed; she now scarcely supplies 25 per cent. of the consumption. The Indian and Ceylon Teas can be put on the London market very cheaply, and their pungent, strong flavour seems in great favour. To poor folk, the leaf which will stand much watering, and still produce a dark liquid, is, of course, popular; but it seems incredible that those to whom a few pence more a pound can make but little or no difference reject the beautiful, delicate-flavoured China Tea, in favour of its rival, the inferior Indian leaf. More care must be taken in the cultivation of the leaf, and modern machinery must be employed in handling it after picking, if the Chinese wish to make an effort to get it back into the world's favour. Then, if the taxation be reduced, there may still be better days for one of China's greatest staples.

Luckily, Russia still prefers to use its old friend, the China leaf, and has called for it in ever-increasing quantity. In 1892 some 27 million lb. of Tea were sent to Russia, and in 1900 43 million lb. were shipped. A large amount of Tea is sent to Siberia and Mongolia *via* the River Han, which empties itself into the Yangtze at this port.

The United States and Canada call for China Tea, but not in very great quantity, and but little fluctuation has been shown during the past 10 years.

The importance of the Brick and Tablet Tea trade has steadily increased, and now, annually, some 200,000 piculs are sent to Russia proper, and, on an average, some 25,000 piculs to Siberia and Mongolia.

The enormous importance of the Tea trade of this port may be gauged by the following figures, for the 10 years 1892-1901 :—

	1892-1901.	
	TOTAL VALUE.	DUTY PAID.
	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>
Leaf Tea.....	66,484,021	8,832,197
Black Brick Tea.....	14,640,567	1,098,922
Green " ".....	11,124,796	951,678
Tablet Tea.....	650,211	75,819
Leaf Tea, sent via the Han River, for Siberia.....	6,874,185	116,127 *
Brick Tea, " " " ".....	1,996,804	50,171 *
GRAND TOTAL FOR THE 10 YEARS..... <i>Hk. Ta</i>	101,770,584	11,124,914

* *Likhs.*

As the traveller approaches Hankow, the first glimpse he has of the port is its many tall factory chimneys, giving it quite the appearance of a manufacturing town; both on the Hankow and Wuchang banks can be seen these indications of the industry and importance of the place.

On the Japanese Concession is the Match factory, owned by a well-known Chinese merchant of Shanghai. It was opened in July 1897, and has been producing some 430,000 boxes daily, at the exceedingly low rate of 3 cash per box; 1,200 hands are employed. The Matches are wholly consumed locally and in this neighbourhood.

On the French Concession there is an Albumen factory. Formerly there were five working in the various Concessions; but although at one time it was a most thriving and profitable trade, the low exchange, the higher price demanded by the Native egg sellers, and keen competition, not only between the local factories, but also from those at other Chinese ports, has so seriously affected this industry that at present only one of the factories is working. Another competitor is chemical Albumen, which can be produced in Europe at a much smaller cost than the real article shipped from China. This industry, which started in 1898, at one time promised well for the port: in that year 1,012 piculs of Albumen, valued at *Hk. Ta* 25,323, and 8,251 piculs of Yolk, valued at *Hk. Ta* 37,121, were exported, principally to Europe. In 1899 there was an increase to 1,541 piculs of Albumen, valued at *Hk. Ta* 38,524, and 11,582 piculs of Yolk, at *Hk. Ta* 52,154. Next year saw the figures nearly doubled: 2,373 piculs of Albumen, valued at *Hk. Ta* 59,356, and 18,928 piculs of Yolk, valued at *Hk. Ta* 85,222. Suddenly the demand dropped, and for 1901 only 951 piculs of Albumen, valued at *Hk. Ta* 18,159, and 4,017 piculs of Yolk, valued at *Hk. Ta* 18,084, were shipped. Necessarily, the industry created a large demand for duck eggs, the wholesale price rising from 3 or 4 cash a piece to 6 and even 8 cash. The duck egg is preferred, as larger, but for special orders hens eggs had to be used. The process is to separate the white from the yolk of the egg; the former is laid in shallow trays and, with the aid of steam heat, subjected to evaporation, the result being

a thin, gelatinous sheet, used chiefly for industrial purposes, such as photography, dyeing, and confectionery. The chemical substitute now in use seems to be as effectual, and is produced at a much lower price. The yolk is mixed with a 2 per cent. solution of boracic acid and packed in barrels; it is used for dressing the better kinds of leather, also for some kinds of varnish.

On the Russian Concession there are two Brick Tea factories, which, with the other two in the British Concession, are undoubtedly the most important industrial institutions of the port. Three of these were in existence before the present decennial period, and the fourth one was opened in August 1893. These factories, which contain all the most modern machinery for the manufacture of Brick and Tablet Tea, as well as electric light plant, are a source of livelihood for many thousands of Natives. For the Tablet Tea a superior kind of Tea Dust is required, but for the Brick Tea a very inferior class is used, averaging in price from Ta 6 to Ta 7 per picul. An idea of the importance of this, one of the most valuable branches of Hankow's staple trade, may be gauged by mentioning that the total value of Brick and Tablet Tea which passed through the Customs for the last decade was Hk. Ta 26,415,574. There are 15 presses for Brick Tea at the four factories, and seven for Tablet Tea. The former can produce, at most, 120 baskets per day; the latter, 21 baskets. Each basket of Brick Tea contains 64-80 bricks, each of $2\frac{1}{2}$ lb. compressed Tea Dust, and the Tablet Tea baskets contain 408-504 tablets, each weighing $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. Practically, all this Tea is shipped to Siberia, where, communication being difficult, this form of packing in baskets has been found most suitable.

A little further up river stand the important Iron and Steel Works known as the "Hanyang Government Iron and Steel Works." A detailed and exhaustive report on these works having been given in the previous Decennial Report, little has to be added. Started by the Viceroy, His Excellency CHANG CHIH-TUNG, with the main purpose of furnishing rails for the Pei-Han Railway, it has attained its object, the rails used on the line having been manufactured at these works. Although the construction of these works began some 11 years ago, they were not in condition to work for some time, and even then for relatively small orders. In 1894 were exported some 1,100 tons of Pig Iron; next year a few tons only were shipped. The year 1896 saw things placed under better management, and the figures obtained from the works show a very healthy and bright future for this industry. During the six years of the present management the works have manufactured 26,800 tons of Pig Iron, 700 tons of Manufactured Iron Bars, 1,600 tons of Steel Bars, 22,100 tons of Rails, 3,700 tons of Manufactured Iron, besides a large assortment of waggons, tools, etc. The blast furnaces can turn out daily 80 tons of Pig Iron, and have even been worked to 104 tons a day. The Ore used all comes from the rich deposits at Huang-shih-kang (黃石港), in the Ta-yeh (大冶) district, a monthly average of 4,500 tons being used, and it is one of the richest in the world, giving up to 64 per cent. of Iron. Some 4,500 tons of Japanese Coal and 3,500 tons of Coke are used monthly in the furnaces. The Coke comes from the Ping-hsiang (萍鄉) Coal mines, situated up the Li-ling River, in Hunan. It is expected that Coal will soon be easily obtainable from the Ping-hsiang and Ta-yeh districts, where it is found in great abundance and worked at a small cost, and will replace the imported Japanese Coal. Railway communication with the mines is in course of construction. At one time over 40 Europeans, chiefly Belgians, were employed at the Iron Works, but lately only four have been at work.

On the Wuchang side stand the Hupeh Cotton Mills, finished by His Excellency CHANG CHIH-TUNG in January 1893, and capable of working 1,000 looms, and with a daily output of 360 pieces of Shirtings. Below is given a table showing the working of this establishment since its completion:—

YEAR.	GREY SHIRTINGS.	DRILLS.	COTTON YARN.
	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>
1893.....	2,013
1894.....	70,288	5,970	4,413
1895.....	94,690	4,255	7,263
1896.....	72,980	1,560	18,868
1897.....	40,870	...	7,281
1898.....	26,501	...	18,952
1899.....	14,886	...	41,162
1900.....	4,731	...	25,419
1901.....	5,970	...	10,331
TOTAL.....	330,916	11,785	135,702

In August 1895 the Viceroy established the Wuchang Mint. It contains machinery capable of turning out 3 million taels worth of dollars, and about 1 million taels worth of 10 and 20 cent pieces, per year. Another Mint, established at Wuchang in 1898, for the coinage of copper cash, is now solely employed in coining silver, the rise in price of copper having rendered the minting of cash unprofitable. A table is given to show the working of this establishment since its installation:—

YEAR.	WUCHANG COINS.		
	Dollars.	Small Coins.	TOTAL.
1895.....	240,300	...	240,300
1896.....	348,361	154,218	502,579
1897.....	1,127,359	486,340	1,613,699
1898.....	2,121,834	444,227	2,566,061
1899.....	2,832,726	2,159,716	4,992,442
1900.....	567,725	2,991,960	3,559,685
1901.....	421,597	287,885	709,482

Opposite the British Concession, on the Wuchang side, Messrs. L. VRARD & Co., a French firm, have their Antimony Ore works. Established a couple of years ago, this enterprise has assumed great importance. Antimony, Zinc, and Lead are crushed, purified, and analysed by a competent staff. The most modern machinery, comprising five crushing machines, 38 gigs, and five concentrating tables, imported from Germany and America, are day and night at work.

The Zinc and Lead Ores come from Shui-k'ou-shan (水口山), in Hunan, and about 3,000 tons of each are crushed annually. The Antimony Ore comes from Hêng-chou-fu (衡州府), in Hunan also, and about 2,000 tons are crushed every year. The principal markets for these products are America, Europe, and Japan. To give an idea of the superior quality of these Ores, a copy is given below of three analyses, taken at random, of the products as exported:—

ANTIMONY.		ZINC.		LEAD.	
	Per Cent.		Per Cent.		Per Cent.
Silis	6.36	Silis	4.38	Silis	1.47
Lead	(absent)	Lead	7.82	Lead	72.76
Iron	0.40	Iron	5.00	Iron	2.08
Arsenic	(trace)	Copper	0.92	Copper	0.75
Antimony	65.40	Zinc	51.65	Zinc	5.57

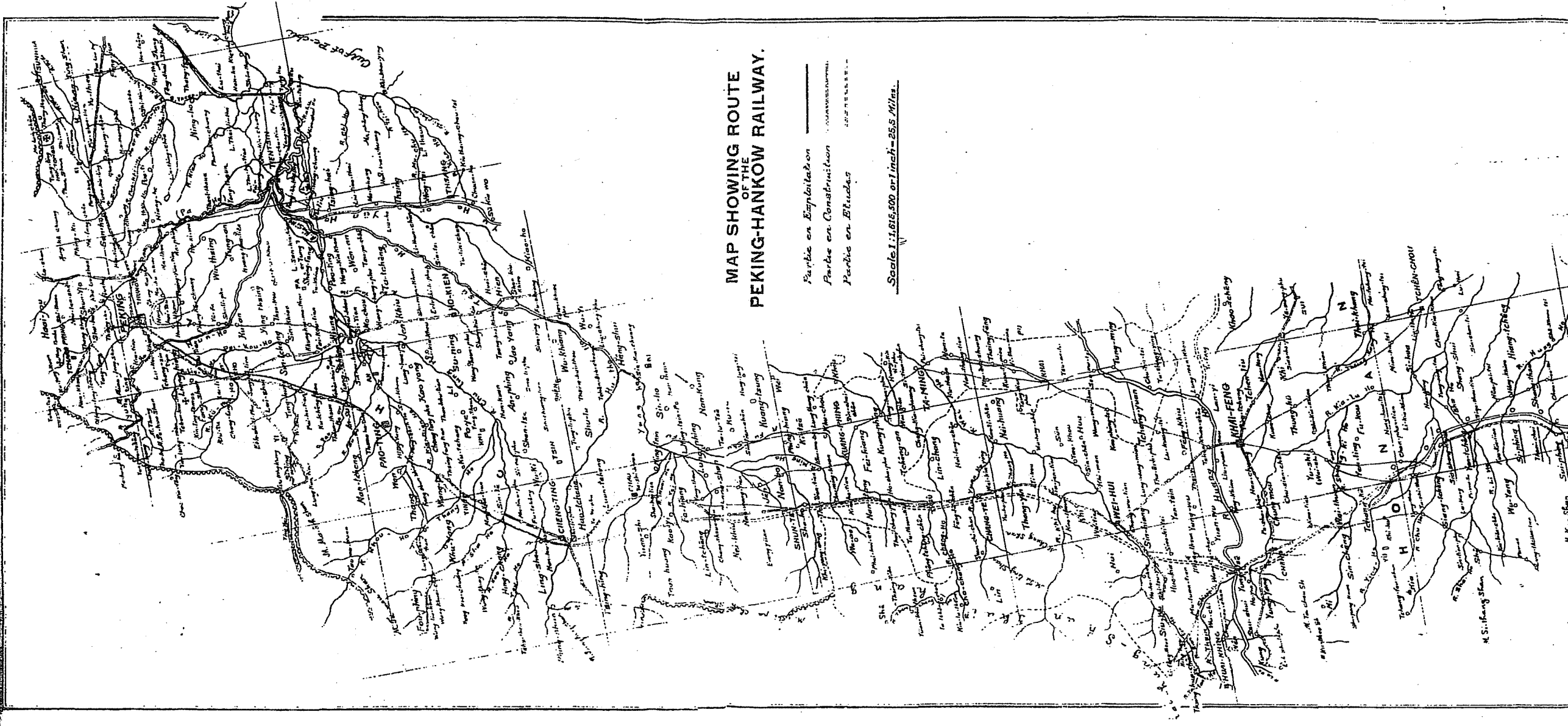
In the Stibine Ore, 50 to 80 per cent. of Antimony has been found; in the Blenda Ore, Lead has been found up to 15 per cent., and Zinc to 45 per cent.; in the Galena Ore, 70 to 86 per cent. of Lead has been found, and Zinc up to 10 per cent. Oxide of Lead has not been found in Galena Ores.

Adjoining the Hanyang Iron Works are the Hupeh Arsenal and Small Arms Factory. All the machinery used came from Germany, and some 30 Mauser rifles and five quick-firing guns are turned out daily. Smokeless powder is also manufactured at this place, as well as a large quantity of ammunition. The Metals from the Iron Works foundry are used in the Arsenal.

An event of the utmost importance to this port, and also to China, was the issuing of an Imperial Edict, on the 20th October 1896, authorising the construction of a railway from Peking to Hankow, and on the 11th August 1898, of another edict, granting power to the Viceroy of Chihli and Hupeh to borrow Foreign capital for this undertaking. By the same decree His Excellency SHENG Kung-pao was appointed Director General of the Imperial Chinese Railways.

A company, styled "Société d'Étude des Chemins de Fer en Chine," was formed in Brussels and Paris, by a group of financiers and manufacturers, who, on the 26th June 1898, made a contract with the above-named Viceroy to advance the necessary capital and construct the line. This company, in turn, in April 1899, issued 225,000 bonds of 500 francs each, gold—that is, 112,500,000 francs,—at 5 per cent, redeemable in 20 years. After several surveys and much deliberation, it was ultimately decided that the line should follow the following route: starting from Lu-kou-ch'iao (蘆溝橋), near Peking, it is to go to Pao-ting-fu (保定府); thence on to Chêng-ting (正定), Shun-tê (順德), Chang-tê (彰德), Wei-hui (衛輝); across the Yellow River near Yung-tsé (榮澤); thence to Hsin-yang (信陽) and Hankow.

In the North, Mr. C. W. KINDER had already constructed the Lukou-ch'iao-Pao-ting-fu portion, and on the 1st October 1899 this line was taken over by the newly-formed company. At the Hankow end work began in March 1898.



MAP SHOWING ROUTE
OF THE
PEKING-HANKOW RAILWAY.

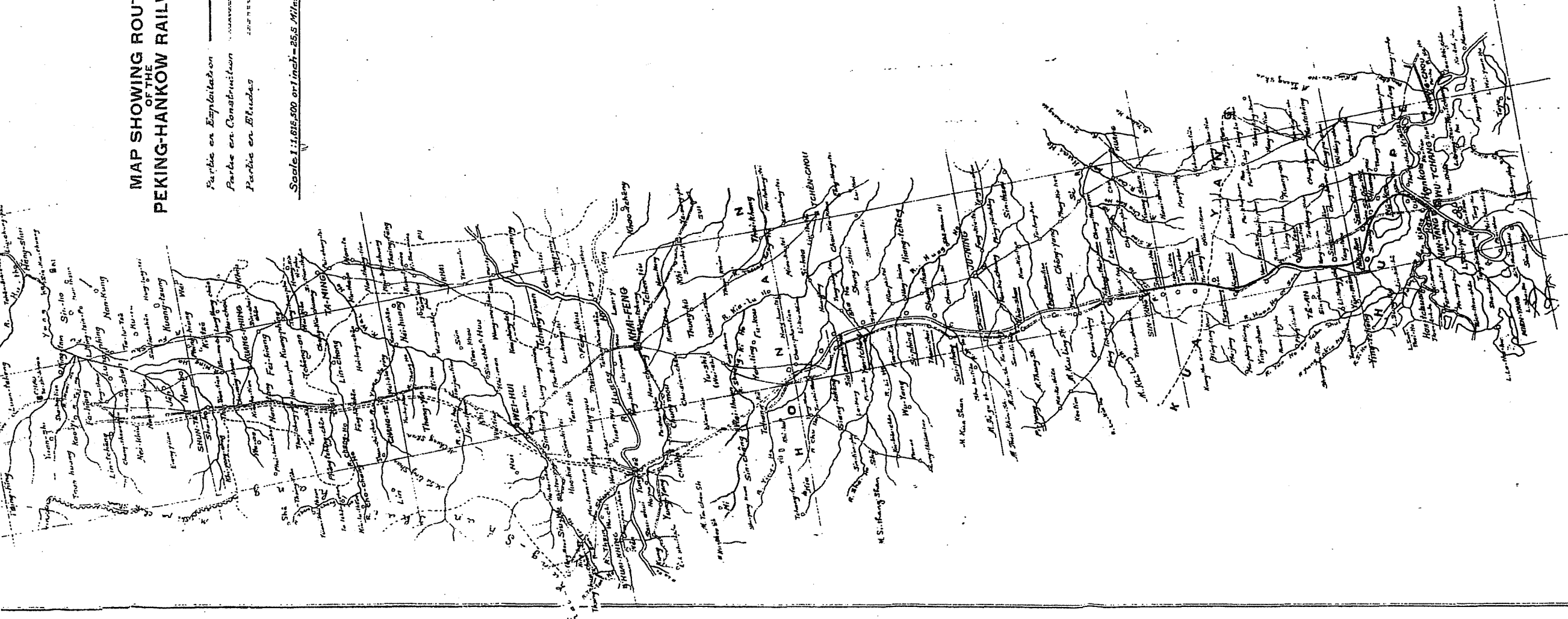
- Partie en Exploitation
- Partie en Construction
- Partie en Etudes

Scale 1:1,618,500 or 1 inch = 25.5 Miles.

MAP SHOWING ROUTE OF THE PEKING-HANKOW RAILWAY.

Partie en Exploitation
Partie en Construction
Partie en Etudes

Scale 1:1,616,400 or 1 inch = 25.5 Miles.



In the autumn of 1900, the company, under arrangement with the commanders of the allied armies, constructed a 10-mile line from Lu-kou-ch'iao to the Chien-mên, or principal gate of Peking city, thus connecting the capital of the Empire to the main line, and changing the name of the railway from Lu-Han ("Lu," for Lu-kou-ch'iao; "Han," for Hankow) to Pei-Han ("Pei," for Peking; "Han," for Hankow).

In the North some 165 miles of rails have been laid, and traffic is open from Peking to Chêng-ting (正定). In the southern section the line is practically finished as far as Hsin-tien (新店), 114 miles from Hankow; but traffic is, at time of writing, only opened as far as Kuang-shui, some 98 miles from Hankow. The rails are laid of standard gauge, and it is estimated the average cost of laying the whole plant will be 125,000 francs per kilomètre. The total length of the line connecting Hankow and Peking will cover over 800 miles, and it is expected that in about three years through trains will run between the two places, covering the distance in about 60 hours.

The *personnel* employed for the construction of the line consists of about 40 Frenchmen, 30 Belgians, 25 Italians, and 12 of other nationalities. Besides these, a large number of European contractors are employed, principally Italians. The Chinese labour is found locally, 4,000 coolies being employed daily in a single section; their average daily wages are about 200 cash, or 25 cents (about 5d.), per man. The construction directorate is at Brussels, and the financial directorate in Paris. Monsieur SROCKLER is the President of the company, with residence at Brussels, and Monsieur JADOT is the Chief Director in China.

Peking is already connected, by the Tientsin and Shanhaikwan Railway, to the Trans-siberian route; and as the proposed Hankow-Canton line (to be controlled by an American syndicate, styled "The American China Development Company," which has obtained the concession to construct it) will have its terminus at Hankow, it can easily be seen how these lines of railway, connecting the heart of China with Europe, will rapidly and to an enormous extent develop the trade of this great country. It is intended to construct extensive wharf and godown accommodation on the Yangtze bank, about 4 miles below Hankow, where large ocean steamers will be able to lie and discharge and load cargoes for and from the interior. With the vast mineral and agricultural resources of the provinces crossed by the railway, the outlook is most brilliant for these lines, and the immense political and military importance it will have in the future development of China and her international intercourse must not be forgotten.

At the time of writing, trains only start from the "Gare Fluviale," some 4 miles down the river, but it is expected that in a very short time they will do so from the station near the Han River, stopping for passengers at another station at the back of the French Concession.

A trip by the existing line to Kuang-shui is highly enjoyable and interesting. Since Christmas Day 1901, the train starts at 7.30 A.M. from the "Gare Fluviale," crossing three times, on substantial bridges (one of 90 mètres, the middle one of 181 mètres, and the third one of 240 mètres), the River Ho-an, locally known as the Seven-miles Creek, and, taking a north-north-west direction, stops at the following stations: Nieh-k'ou (河口), Chi-chia-wan (鄭家灣), San-ch'a-pu (三岔埠), Hsiao-kan (孝感), San-ch'a-kang (三岔港), Hua-yüan (花園), Wan-chia-tien (萬家店); and arrives at 1.30 P.M. at Kuang-shui. The line runs nearly all the way

parallel to the above-named Ho-an-ho, which has its source at the foot of the Huai-yang range of mountains, where the first tunnel on this line is being constructed. The line crosses the river, and a well-watered country, on 58 bridges, of a total length of 2,128 mètres; these consist of two of 240 mètres each, one of 200, one of 180, two of 120, and the rest from 6 to 60 mètres each. At San-ch'a-pu a gradual ascent begins, reaching, at Kuang-shui, a height of over 225 feet above Hankow and 400 above sea-level. This district, on account of its altitude, excellent climate, superb scenery, and easy and convenient accessibility from Hankow, is talked of as a possible health and summer resort for Foreigners.

Already laid, but not ready for traffic until June next, the line continues through the tunnel above referred to at Van-si-kuang. This tunnel is 1,230 feet long, distant about 109 miles from Hankow, and 426 feet above sea-level; it is already bored, allowing the trains to pass through, but the walls are not yet faced. After this tunnel the rails are laid through Hsin-tien, where a station is being built, and continue until the banks of the I-su-ho River, about 4 miles from Hsin-yang, are reached, and here a bridge is in course of construction. From the tunnel, the line begins a gradual descent to the uninteresting, but immensely rich and populous, plains of the Yellow River, crossing it in the vicinity of Yung-tsé. The bridging of this vast river is the greatest engineering difficulty of the whole line, and, as yet, definite plans have not been made. It is thought, however, that a bridge of over 10,000 feet will be required, which will make it the longest in the world.

It may be added, as already mentioned, that all the rails used for the line have been manufactured with Chinese Steel at the Hanyang Government Iron Works. About 22,000 tons of these rails have already been delivered and laid. The bridges and other foundry pieces used in the line have been imported from Japan, America, and Europe (chiefly Belgium and France).

Reference has already been made to the Canton-Hankow Railway, to be styled the Yüeh-Han Railway ("Yüeh" being the classical name for Kwangtung, and "Han," the first syllable for Hankow). The building concession was granted to the late Senator CALVIN S. BRICE, who formed an American syndicate, a large share of the stock being taken up by Belgians. No definite plans have, as yet, been made, although an eminent American engineer, Mr. WILLIAM BARCLAY PARSONS, has made a preliminary survey, and it is conjectured that the line will be some 750 miles in length, having its terminus at Wuchang, just opposite Hankow, and with branch lines, which are in contemplation, will be brought up to 900 miles. The Imperial Chinese Government is to issue bonds to the amount of \$42,500,000, gold; these bonds are to be turned over to the American China Development Company, under its contract with the Chinese Government. The bonds are gold issue, bearing interest at the rate of 5 per cent. and running for 50 years. Material for this line has already passed through Hankow *en route* to Yochow.

Mines.—Very little reliable information can be obtained on this subject; but, from all accounts, there is no doubt that both Hupeh and Hunan are enormously rich in minerals which, well developed, must prove a source of wealth to the provincial government.

In the Ta-yeh (大冶) district, for many years, have been mined Coal and Iron Ore of superior quality. Large and productive pits are in working order, owned by both Foreigners and Natives. The Iron Ore produced is of superior quality, and for some time has been used in the Japanese Government foundries, and private yards also use it for manufacturing Steel.

In addition to the large quantities exported *via* Shanghai, chartered steamers proceed direct to the mining district and carry the Ore to Japan. Almost all the Iron and Steel manufactured at the Hanyang Iron Works comes from these mines. It is stated that, as the Ore yields as much as 65 per cent. of Iron, it renders it one of the richest Ores known.

The next important mine is at Ping-hsiang (萍鄉), a Coal district on the borders of the Hunan-Kiangsi provinces. At present these mines turn out some 1,000 tons of Coal a day, but with better means of communication much more could be brought to market. The Li-lin River, up which the mines are situated, has a series of barriers for damming up the water to irrigate the country, and it is thus with difficulty that even small craft can navigate it. A railway is now in course of construction, and already some 6 miles of rails are laid, and it is expected that in the course of the present year it will reach the city of Li-lin, which is to be one of the stations on the Hankow-Canton Railway. The Coal produced is said to be of a superior quality, resembling the Australian mineral. The Hanyang Iron Works use exclusively the Coke from it for their blast furnaces, of which they consume some 4,000 tons a month.

It is a well-known fact that these provinces are very rich in minerals, but, as it has been pointed out, it is next to impossible to obtain reliable information about them. Coal, Iron, Lead, Zinc, Antimony, and other Metals are to be found, in large quantities and of superior quality. Many pits are known to have been worked, by very primitive methods, for many hundreds of years; but most of the mining done has been surface work, the people being content to dig a few feet below the surface. The riches of the bowels of the earth in these districts have yet to be brought to light by the employment of modern machinery.

(c.) **REVENUE.**—The comparative Duty table appended needs little explanation. During the decade a very important change was made in the Regulations of Trade on the Yangtze. Under the old Regulations of 1862 the river ports did not collect Import Duties; but in 1899 the Revised Regulations came into force, and placed Hankow and other river ports on the same footing, from a Duty-collection point of view, as coast ports. The Revenue for the year 1899 amounted to *Hk. Ta.* 2,398,929, and was the record collection since the port was opened.

DUES AND DUTIES COLLECTED, 1892-1901.

YEAR.	IMPORT (exclusive of Opium).	EXPORT (exclusive of Opium).	COAST TRADE (exclusive of Opium).	OPIMUM (Import, Ex- port, and Coast Trade).	TONNAGE.	TRANSIT.	OPIMUM LIKEN.	TOTAL.
	<i>Hk. Ta. m. c. c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta. m. c. c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta. m. c. c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta. m. c. c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta. m. c. c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta. m. c. c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta. m. c. c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta. m. c. c.</i>
1892.....	302.2.6.3	1,579,088.3.5.3	113,014.7.9.9	22,512.2.4.8	3,229.0.0.0	117,322.8.2.9	59,747.4.0.0	1,895,216.8.9.2
1893.....	5,845.5.3.2	1,880,561.7.4.0	164,967.3.4.7	22,622.3.5.0	4,216.1.0.0	81,115.7.2.4	60,146.0.0.0	2,219,474.7.9.3
1894.....	2,609.1.4.3	1,827,538.9.6.7	102,097.3.9.2	21,922.0.0.0	6,187.4.0.0	80,806.3.1.0	57,722.0.0.0	2,098,883.2.1.2
1895.....	5,147.4.9.9	1,901,449.1.3.4	61,230.6.2.9	17,442.1.0.0	6,304.1.0.0	105,420.4.3.0	46,002.4.0.0	2,142,996.2.9.2
1896.....	11,771.2.0.1	1,641,364.9.4.1	42,838.3.8.3	16,229.5.1.3	13,494.9.0.0	132,920.7.5.6	42,639.4.0.0	1,901,259.0.9.4
1897.....	19,827.1.7.5	1,640,947.3.5.3	114,206.1.4.4	15,493.0.5.0	17,864.5.0.0	175,360.1.9.6	41,314.8.0.0	2,025,013.2.1.8
1898.....	7,023.7.5.4	1,839,268.4.7.0	132,464.9.6.9	14,073.8.0.0	15,268.4.0.0	148,901.8.1.3	37,411.2.0.0	2,194,412.4.0.6
1899.....	74,327.6.5.8	2,124,504.7.0.8	96,727.8.7.3	12,403.3.5.0	17,491.8.0.0	125,630.1.8.8	33,037.2.0.0	2,484,122.7.7.7*
1900.....	89,127.3.3.4	1,775,567.3.7.9	86,493.7.9.5	12,947.5.6.6	21,592.5.8.0	95,770.5.9.4	34,260.5.4.0	2,115,759.7.8.8
1901.....	136,448.0.7.4	1,664,638.8.2.6	107,618.2.1.4	13,421.6.5.2	28,947.7.8.0	102,552.1.7.5	34,041.6.8.0	2,087,668.2.0.1
TOTAL.....	352,429.6.3.3	17,874,929.6.7.1	1,021,659.5.4.5	169,067.6.2.9	134,596.5.6.0	1,165,801.0.1.5	446,322.6.2.0	21,164,806.6.7.3

* Gross receipts, the deficit in the Yangtze Coast Trade Deposit Account, amounting to *Hk. Ta.* 85,193.5.1.4, not having been deducted.

(d.) OPIUM.—The prophecy in the last Decennial Report, that Native Opium would in time replace the Foreign drug, has turned out to be a true one, as statistics of the present decade will show. Steadily the Returns show a decline in all kinds of the Foreign drug. Before the Opium Convention of 1887 hardly any Native Opium was produced, the 1882 Returns showing only 2.05 piculs as the gross importation through this office; but no impediment to the cultivation having been imposed, it has naturally made for itself a steady way in the market. The first year of this decade (1892) shows that 2,305 piculs of Szechwan Opium were imported, rising steadily to 12,840 piculs in 1901.

The total quantity of Szechwan Opium imported into Hankow for the decade was 75,377 piculs; most of this was re-exported, leaving a net total import of 3,434 piculs. Next in importance is Yunnan Opium, of which 16,745 piculs were imported, and 757 piculs consumed locally. There was a small importation of other Native Opium from Kweichow, Shansi, and Kiangsu, but of such small importance that no notice need be taken of it.

Of Foreign Opium, the following figures give the net importation:—

	Piculs.		Piculs.
1892	497	1897	233
1893	479	1898	180
1894	467	1899	174
1895	352	1900	165
1896	271	1901	148

Undoubtedly, the cheapness of the Native drug has much to do with this reversal of trade. In 1892 the value per picul of Malwa Opium was $\text{T}14$ 477; it is now $\text{T}14$ 700; the Patna drug, which was worth $\text{T}14$ 426 per picul in 1892, is now quoted at $\text{T}14$ 638; whereas the Native drug has not altered at all in price, it being, in the case of Szechwan Opium, $\text{T}14$ 287 per picul, and for Yunnan Opium, $\text{T}14$ 330.

(e.) Undoubtedly, with the growth and importance of the port, confidence and credit in Foreign banks has increased. The Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China, which established itself in 1863, and the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation in 1868, found new competitors establishing themselves in the port during the decade. In 1896 the Russo-Chinese Bank opened its branch; the Deutsch-Asiatische Bank in 1898; and on the 15th of March 1902 the Banque de l'Indo-Chine opened its doors. It is understood that before the end of the year a Japanese bank—the Yasuda Ginko—will establish an important branch at Hankow. There is no doubt that with more financial facilities, and increased movement of capital, the development of trade of the port will increase.

The Natives, also, have increased confidence in the Foreign banks, as may be judged by the increase in the bank *clientèle* and eagerness of the Chinese to use Foreign bank notes. Of these, the Hongkong and Shanghai Bank made an issue in December 1886, of notes for $\text{T}14$ 1 and $\text{T}14$ 5; but no more issues have been deemed necessary. In 1899 and 1900 the Russo-Chinese Bank issued tael notes, but on account of the extensive reported robbery of notes in Peking, during the Boxer troubles, replaced them by dollar notes.

His Excellency the Viceroy also, during the decade, has issued Native bank notes, bearing a face value of 1,000 cash. All yamen and railway payments are made in these notes, which are readily accepted in the market.

Large Native banks have increased in number, for whereas 24 were reported in the last Report, at present there are 29 existing, of which 12 have $\text{T}14$ 4,000,000 each capital, and the remainder about $\text{T}14$ 1,000,000 each. Besides these, there are over 500 smaller banks and cash exchange shops, whose capital is from $\text{T}14$ 10,000 to $\text{T}14$ 100,000. During the decade no serious bankruptcy case is reported, which tends to show careful and good management.

Native interest varies very much during the seasons of the year, ruling very high in the winter, with the proximity of the Chinese New Year, and also in the spring, when advances on tea account are required. During the earlier part of last year, to give an instance, interest ruled between 3.65 and 7.3 per cent., but on the 4th of November it went up to 14 per cent., per month. In 1899 it was known to attain as high as 28 per cent. per month.

Exchange in cash has suffered considerably. A few years back the Haikwan tael was worth 1,600 cash; in 1897 it went down to 1,299 cash; and at present only about 1,326 cash can be obtained for the Haikwan tael. The reason for this enhanced price is that the market value of copper has increased, so much that it pays the smelter to utilise the current cash, rather than purchase the crude article. In 1891 the authorities prohibited the export of cash, to remedy somewhat the scarcity of the market; but no tangible result has been observed, as the statistics show a steady yearly fall.

The price of dollars has not varied very much during the period under review, ranging between 65 and 66 Haikwan candareens.

The appended table shows the yearly highest and lowest exchange, during the decade, between English sterling and the Haikwan tael, also the copper cash and Haikwan tael exchange. It may be added, to demonstrate the considerable fall in exchange, that in 1890, the highest on record, exchange reached nearly 6s. as a maximum and 4s. 9d. as a minimum; the lowest quotation for the year 1901 is 2s. 8½d., as shown in the following table:—

YEAR.	HIGHEST STERLING RATE.	LOWEST STERLING RATE.	AMOUNT OF COPPER CASH EXCHANGED FOR A HAIKWAN TAEI.
1892.....	4s. 8½d.	4s. 1½d.	1,573
1893.....	4s. 3½d.	3s. 5½d.	1,527
1894.....	4s. 6½d.	2s. 11½d.	1,605
1895.....	3s. 5½d.	3s. 0½d.	1,500
1896.....	3s. 5½d.	3s. 2½d.	1,331
1897.....	3s. 3½d.	2s. 6½d.	1,299
1898.....	3s. 0½d.	2s. 9½d.	1,362
1899.....	3s. 0½d.	2s. 10½d.	1,387
1900.....	3s. 3½d.	2s. 11½d.	1,370
1901.....	3s. 2½d.	2s. 8½d.	1,326

At time of writing, the steady fall in exchange is a very discouraging feature for those who have a fixed silver income and sterling responsibilities. Nevertheless, there is a bright side for merchants, Foreign and Native, who are all able, on account of this advantageous exchange, to place Native produce in the home markets at lower prices, competing thereby with similar goods from other parts of the world.

To complete this Report, a table is appended, showing, in Haikwan taels, the import and export of Treasure for the last 10 years:—

YEAR.	IMPORTED.			EXPORTED.		
	Gold.	Silver.	Copper Cash.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper Cash.
	<i>Hk. Tl.</i>	<i>Hk. Tl.</i>	<i>Hk. Tl.</i>	<i>Hk. Tl.</i>	<i>Hk. Tl.</i>	<i>Hk. Tl.</i>
1892.....	87,670	3,137,027	398,618	42,621	1,357,927	1,580
1893.....	85,386	6,725,611	124,214	74,478	1,584,220	420
1894.....	58,660	11,251,743	5,894	61,480	3,128,576	13,260
1895.....	48,000	14,138,061	103,554	42,048	3,531,403	18,000
1896.....	104,440	10,943,957	22,690	33,070	3,470,008	...
1897.....	114,623	7,554,945	58,666	51,610	3,061,082	...
1898.....	38,080	7,773,667	20,538	78,537	4,344,684	...
1899.....	1,600	11,262,078	474	36,400	6,370,221	...
1900.....	16,500	12,763,299	...	16,500	5,180,642	...
1901.....	...	7,246,605	1,881,641	58,848 *
TOTAL.....	554,959	92,796,993	734,648	436,744	33,911,405	92,108

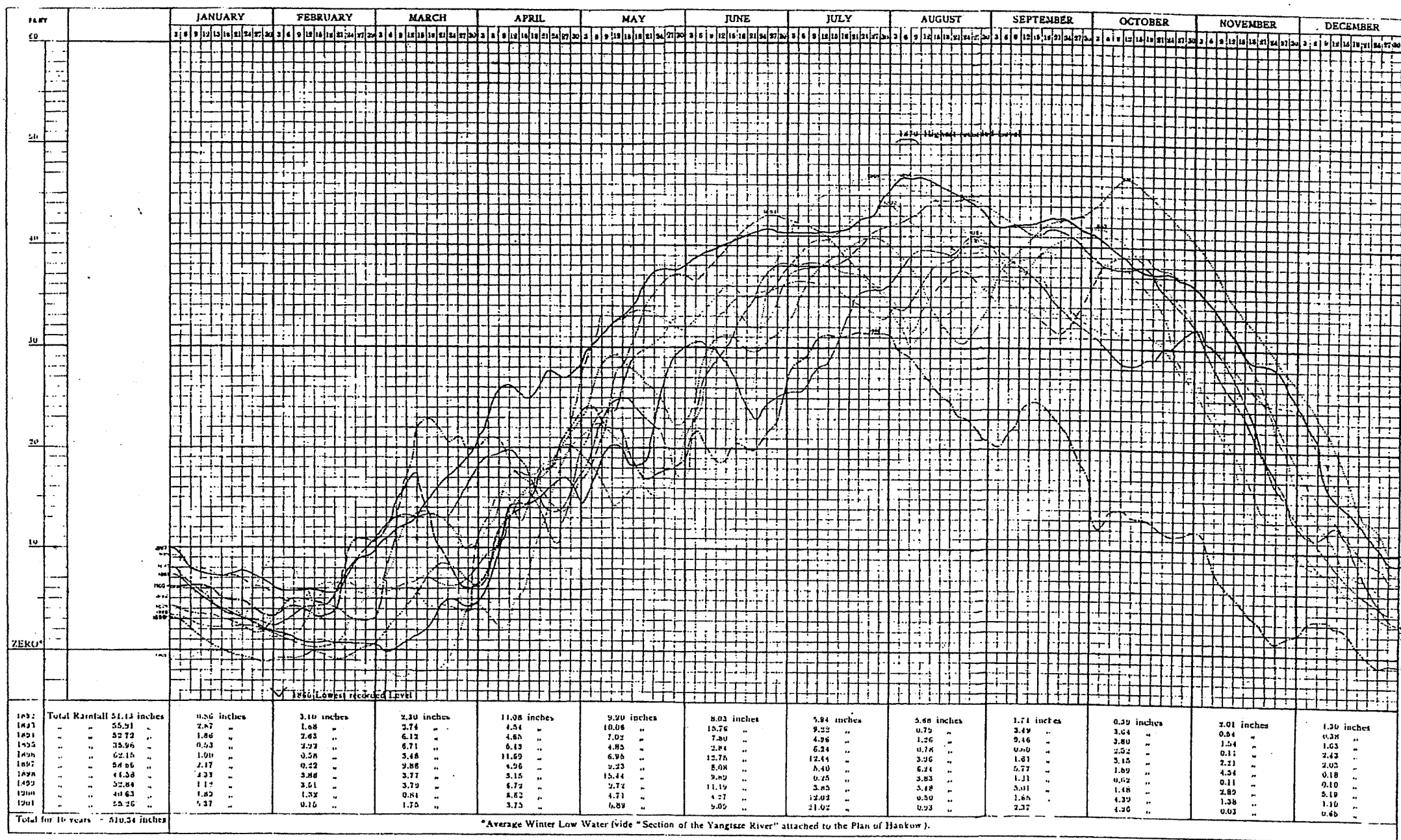
* In Chinese bank notes and under *Hsiao*.

(f.) The following statement shows the comparative values of goods arrived and departed during the last 10 years:—

	<i>Hk. Tl.</i>		<i>Hk. Tl.</i>
Net Foreign Imports, market value . . .	161,250,596	Original Exports, market value . . .	269,848,472
" Native " " " . . .	62,977,871		
Net Imports . . .	224,228,467		
Deduct Duties and Likin paid at Hankow .	1,418,628	Add Duty paid at Hankow . . .	17,875,988
Net Imports, minus Duty . . .	222,809,839	Exports, plus Duty . . .	287,724,460
Deduct 7 per cent. for importers profit, etc.	15,596,688	Add 8 per cent. on market value for exporters profit, etc. . .	21,587,878
Imports, value at moment of landing . . .	207,213,151	Exports, value at moment of shipment . .	309,312,338

(g.) POPULATION.—It is almost impossible to obtain any reliable statistics regarding the Chinese population; but it may be safely asserted that it has considerably increased, for it is not possible that, with the new Concessions and the advent of the railway, anything but a great increase in its numbers could be recorded. The returns showing the number of Native passengers carried to and from the port give a very fair indication of this. In many ways,

DIAGRAM SHOWING THE RISE AND FALL OF THE RIVER YANGTZE AT HANKOW, FOR THE YEARS 1892-1901.



*Average Winter Low Water (vide "Section of the Yangtze River" attached to the Plan of Hankow).

the composition, character, and occupation of the Chinese population must have changed. On all sides there is demand for labour on works of a most varied description, and in every way the character of this district has changed.

What is so plainly true about the Native population is even more apparent when one comes to consider the Foreign population. In 1892 there were 374 Foreigners and 45 Foreign firms on the registers of the various Consulates; there are now (1901) 990 Foreigners and 76 Foreign firms registered. The following table shows how the latter figures are reached:—

NATIONALITY.	Men.	Women.	Children.	TOTAL.	FIRMS.
American	70	54	70	194	8
Austrian	1	1	2
Belgian	38	2	...	40	6
British	100	45	50	195	26
Dutch	1
French	60	11	3	74	7
" <i>protégés</i>	5	1	2	8	...
German	75	5	7	87	10
Greek	6	1	...	7	1
Italian	102	30	3	135	2
Japanese	57	17	...	74	4
Portuguese	15	15	1
Spanish	53	53	...
Swedish	40	40	...
Russian	48	7	9	64	7
" <i>protégés</i>	2	1	...	3	1
TOTAL	672	174	144	990	76

In many ways, the composition, character, and occupation of the Foreigners residing in this district have changed. The railway has brought men out who would never have been required but for it, and, in every way, the change in the character of Hankow has brought about considerable change in the composition of the Foreign population.

Many of the Shanghai and other storekeepers have established themselves in Hankow during the decade, and there are now no less than 11 Foreign stores in the port.

(h.) See under (a.).

(i.) No permanent changes in the harbour or its approaches have to be recorded. For many years past sandbanks, formed from the silt carried down from the Upper Yangtze and Han River, have been troublesome, especially during the winter months, and the period now being reviewed has been by no means free from these obstacles. It is stated by some that the presence of the three new Concession Bunds has had a great deal to do with the banks which, during the last two years, formed off, and immediately below, the German Concession, and which were, from their shifting nature, difficult to mark and light.

A chart showing the rise and fall of the river is appended to this Report, and from it the extraordinary rapidity with which these changes take place will be readily seen. In 1896 and 1897 the water-mark showed 46 feet 7 inches above zero level; in July 1901 the water rose almost to the same height, and in the same year, in March, it had fallen to 3 feet 2 inches below the zero level: this is the lowest record since 1865.

(j.) During the decade five shore lights have been erected in this district.

(k.) Although China has gone through many unhappy occurrences during the period under review, it must be confessed that Hankow and its immediate neighbourhood has suffered very little from the internal troubles which have revolutionised the country and attracted much attention from the world. The *Ko-lao-hui* troubles, which broke out at the end of the previous decade, although causing a great deal of anxiety in the Yangtze Valley, did not actually bring about any disturbance in this port. In 1894 rumours of impending trouble made it necessary for the Foreigners to be prepared for emergencies, and a volunteer corps was formed. About 25 Foreigners were enrolled; but, thanks to the vigilance of the Native authorities, no trouble ensued, and the corps was disbanded. It was during this year that a Belgian Roman Catholic missionary was murdered in the Ichang vicariate. In 1898, disquieting rumours having got about, the volunteers were again enrolled; but, as on the former occasion, their services were not required.

The Boxer uprising in the North, in 1900, is still fresh in the public mind. It gave much anxiety to residents, and all must be grateful to the Viceroy, His Excellency CHANG CHIH-TUNG, who, with his well-known energy, suppressed all anti-Foreign movement and protected Foreign lives and property. In this task he had the valuable assistance of the Hankow Taotai, Ts'EN CH'UN-MING (岑春蓂), at his disposal. Again the volunteers were enrolled; and this time nearly 125 men were enlisted, the Viceroy showing his friendly feeling by supplying some of them with arms, pending the arrival of their own.

On the 21st August of that year, acting on information, the Chinese authorities, assisted by the municipal police, made a midnight raid on a house on the borders of the British Concession. The occupants proved to be members of the *Ko-lao-hui* and followers of K'ANG YU-WEI, and many incriminating documents were found in their possession. In all, 28 conspirators were arrested, amongst them being two Chinese disguised as Japanese, and a Japanese Army Reserve man, who was handed over to his Consul. Two of the Chinese ringleaders were summarily executed, and 20 others were, after trial, decapitated. The morning after the arrest a Chinese passenger from down river arrived, and, having asked his way to the raided house, was watched by one of the Viceroy's numerous detectives and arrested; he was found to be in possession of money, arms, etc. Copies of the "China Independence Society," manifestoes, plans, seals, with a scheme to fire the three cities of Hankow, Hanyang, and Wuchang simultaneously, and other proofs were found, showing that the affair was an organised plot, by educated men, to upset the present form of Government, provincial as well as Imperial.

On the 20th of April 1894 there was a strong freshet in the Han River. It is estimated that about 400 Native craft and 1,000 lives were lost. For some weeks after business was very slack, which fact is worthy of note, as showing the importance of the Han River as a trade route.

On the 2nd October of the same year a most disastrous fire occurred in the city of Hankow; it burned fiercely for days, and swept from the place of its origin, close to the Water Tower, to the Han River, cutting a path about 600 yards wide by 1½ miles long. The loss of life was estimated at 1,000 to 1,500. This fire was followed by almost continuous smaller fires, believed to be, to some extent, the work of incendiaries.

During the troublous times of 1900 several large fires were started, it is also thought, by incendiaries; but fortunately they were quickly extinguished, and, although causing damage to property, did not spread to any great extent.

In the summer of 1901 the country was extensively flooded by the freshets of the Yangtze, causing a large amount of damage to the river properties and some loss of life.

(l.) **DISTINGUISHED VISITORS.**—During the decade Hankow has been visited by many persons of distinction and by the ordinary globe-trotter. Of the many distinguished people who have visited the port, the most prominent was H.R.H. Prince HENRY of Prussia, brother of the German Emperor, who arrived on the 28th May 1899, in the German cruiser *Gefion*. The Viceroy visited the Prince, and the call was returned; and the British Concession—the only one in existence at the time—was *en fête* for two days, and on the evening of the 29th was beautifully illuminated. On the 30th the Prince laid the foundation stone of the now-existing German Bund.

(m.) The following is the result of examinations, in both the Hupeh and Hunan provinces, during the decade:—

DEGREE.	NUMBER OF SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATES.	
	Hupeh.	Hunan.
Hsiu-ts'ai	7,675	7,440
Chü-jên	259	303
Chin-shih	31	28
Hanlin	12	9
Chuang-yüan
Pang-yen	1 [YIN MING-SHOU (尹銘綬).]
T'au-hua	2 [CHENG YÜAN (鄭沅) and WANG LUNG-WEN (王龍文).]

(n.) There has not been any special change in the Native literary class, and the remarks in the last Report could be repeated; but there is undoubtedly much desire, amongst the Natives, to learn Foreign languages. Besides the numerous schools established by the missionaries, there is at present, at Wuchang, under the auspices of the Viceroy, a college for civil and military students, where several Foreign languages are taught, chiefly Japanese, English, French, and German. In this college there are the following Japanese professors: three military officers as instructors, two assistant instructors, two interpreters, a lecturer on military hygiene, two on agriculture, two on silkworm rearing, one on the Japanese language, and an editor for the

"Trade Gazette." The Railway Bureau, in Hankow city, has also a school, under the direction of the Marist Brothers, to teach French; at present there are in it some 60 students, who are being trained as interpreters, etc., for the railway.

(o.) Examinations for the degree of *chü-jên* are held once every three years, in both Hunan and Hupeh, which provinces are allowed 72 and 61, respectively, at each examination. In 1894, on the occasion of the 60th birthday of the Empress Dowager, 15 more degrees were added, by Imperial Decree, to the numbers allotted to each province.

Examinations for *hsiu-tsui* are held twice in three years. Hunan is allowed 1,573; and Hupeh, 1,548.

The population of Hupeh is estimated at 35,000,000.

It is most difficult to arrive at any idea as to the per-centage of people who can read; but there are no signs that education is in any way spreading.

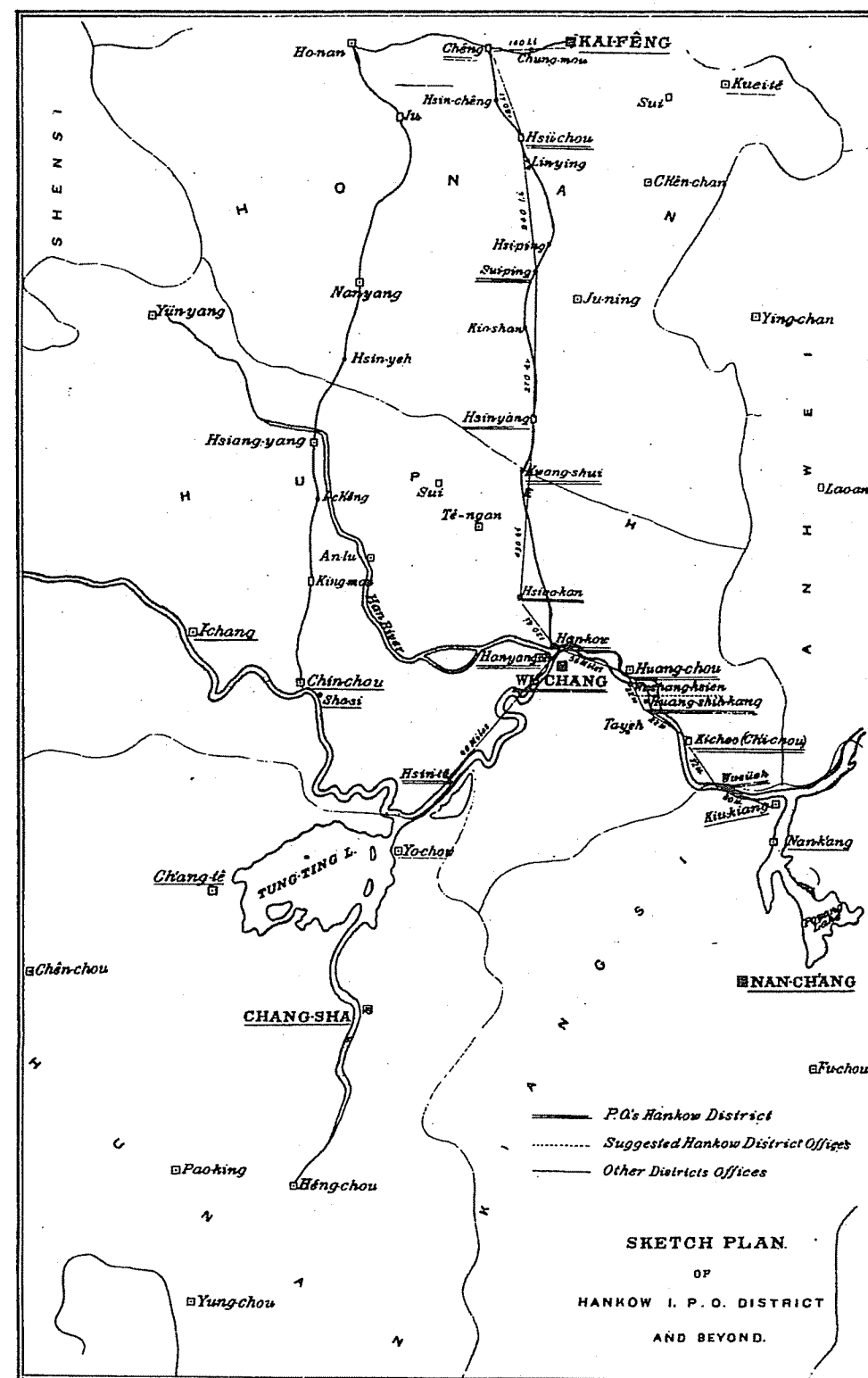
(p.) The subject this heading deals with—the physical character of the province, and its products, etc.—was so exhaustively dealt with in the last Decennial Report that it would be superfluous to say much here. The mineral wealth and practically inexhaustible supplies of natural products, in both Hupeh and Hunan provinces, have been spoken of under other headings in this Report. One point, and a very important one, is that the railway system—which is actually in existence in Hupeh, and which will, no doubt, ere long be seen in Hunan—must give a tremendous impetus to all trade and do a great deal towards laying bare to the world the vast mineral resources of the district. At time of writing, coal is being imported in large quantities from Japan, when it is well known that at our very doors we have huge supplies of most excellent coal, which cannot reach Hankow in great quantity from lack of means of bringing it down. This will soon be changed; and the same remark applies to many other minerals, such as lead, antimony, etc. General produce will, without doubt, pour into the port for shipment to various parts of the world.

(q.) In the last Decennial Report this subject was treated at great length, so little need be added to it, as Native craft regulations have not changed since.

At the Native Customs (Ch'ang Kuan), junks pay Port Dues, from 695 cash for a junk 5 feet wide to 9,264 cash for a 25-foot junk, if with cargo; and if in ballast, 348 cash for a 5-foot junk and 4,632 cash for a 25-foot junk. The junk with cargo is called a "miscellaneous cargo" junk, and no inquiry is made into quantity or quality of the goods carried, no examination taking place. Junks pay once, on clearing, each time they pass through or start from the port. The revenue derived from this source is appropriated by the Imperial Exchequer, and not by the provincial. It amounts to some Ta 33,000 to Ta 34,000 annually, and the accounts are rendered yearly to the Hu Pu, or Board of Revenue.

It is very difficult to obtain a copy of the Likin rules and tariff. A summary of the principal Likin Dues levied at this port is appended (*see* Appendix No. 2).

(r.) The remarks made in the last Decennial Report should be read in conjunction with what has now been written under section (e.), referring to the money market.



(a.) On the 20th February 1897 (Chinese New Year's Day, KUANG HSÜ, 23rd year) an office of the newly-inaugurated Imperial Chinese Postal Department was established at Hankow.

In August 1897 branch offices were opened at Wuchang (武昌) and Wusueh (武穴). In May 1901 Hsin-ti (新隄) was made a branch office. Inland offices were established on the Pei-Han Railway line, between the end of November 1901 and the end of January 1902, at the following stations: Hsiao-kan (孝感), Kuang-shui (廣水), Hsin-yang (信陽), Sui-p'ing (遂平), Hsu-chou (許州), and Chêng-chou (鄭州). A regular biweekly service is maintained by rail as far as Kuang-shui; thence by relays of couriers to Hsu-chou and Chêng-chou; and these two offices are, in turn, connected by a biweekly service with K'ai-fêng (開封), which belongs to the Peking district. Lately branch offices have been opened at the following places on the Yangtze between Hankow and Kiukiang: Huang-shih-kang (黃石港), Ch'i-chou (蘄州), and Huang-chou (黃州)—at these places the river steamers touch for passengers.

Box offices were first established in May 1900; there are, at present, eight in Hankow city, 10 in Wuchang, six in Hanyang, two in Wusueh, and four in the vicinity of Hsin-ti. These offices have proved a great success, the public making ever-increasing use and sending through them ordinary and registered mail matter and parcels.

Money orders were introduced at Hankow, Wuchang, and Hanyang on the 1st January 1898, the increase in this branch being a palpable proof that it is much appreciated. The fee, 2 cents per dollar, is found moderate enough, compared with the charge made by private Chinese postal hong, whose fee is 35 cents per dollar.

The comparative table forming Appendix No. 3 will give, at a glance, a clear idea of the great progress made by the Imperial Post Office since its establishment, in spite of having had to contend with serious rivalry from both the Chinese postal hong and the already-established Foreign postal agencies, and having to live down the natural distrust of any new institution, which, until it is well known and has gained the confidence of the public, is fought shy of. A sketch plan is appended, showing the extent of the postal district of Hankow.

There are, at present, 17 Native postal hong registered at the I.P.O., sending their mails, with more or less regularity, principally to the following places: in Kiangsu, to Pao-ying (寶應), Pu-k'ou (浦口), and Tung-t'ai (東臺); in Kiangsi, to Ching-tê (旌德), Kuang-ch'ang (廣昌), and Fêng-hsin (奉新); in Hunan, to P'ing-chiang (平江), Yung-chou (永州), and Hêng-chou-fu (衡州府); in Anhwei, to Tung-ch'êng (桐城), Wu-wei-chou (無爲州), and Tai-p'ing (太平); in Hupeh, to Ta-yeh (大冶), Hsing-kuo (興國), and Kui-k'ou (蕪口). All these hong are reported to be doing well, and have worked in harmony with the Imperial Post since its establishment.

There are in the port the following Foreign post offices: British, German, French, Russian, and Japanese. The Local Post Office, established in 1877, closed its doors on the advent of the Imperial Post Office. This Local Post Office, during its existence, issued stamps of its own, the first set being printed locally, and having a face value of \$11,500; the second issue consisted of 5,000 sets, printed at WATERLOW'S, in London, and valued at \$3,350; and

the third was of 100,000 sets, printed in Japan, and valued at \$67,000. The premature closing of this office left on the hands of the Municipal Council some \$68,000 worth of stamps, some \$10,000 worth having already been sold.

The British post office was established in 1872 at this port, and it is reported that some \$1,500 a month are collected.

The French post office was established in 1899, and its statistics show it to have received, during 1901, about 20,000 and forwarded 5,000 letters. Postal orders were instituted in October 1901. Parcel post was also inaugurated in the same year.

The German post office was established in 1900. Last year it received 80,000 letters and 350 parcels, and forwarded 66,000 letters and 500 parcels. It has in connexion with it a telephone exchange, with already 74 subscribers.

The Japanese post office was established in September 1899, and it received, from that date to the end of 1901, some 28,781 letters and 266 parcels, and despatched 70,102 letters and 689 parcels; it paid money orders to the value of \$3,757, and issued them to the value of \$31,253. Its revenue for the same period was \$2,880. It has a savings bank attached to it, and during its existence has received on deposit \$5,168, having paid out \$224.

The Russian Consulate post office only despatches mails to Russia by Russian tea steamers.

(2.) The important change in regulations made during the decade was the doing away with the cumbersome machinery of the old Yangtze Regulations, and the introduction of a new system, which caused Hankow to be treated, from a Customs, or Duty-collecting, point of view, in exactly the same way as other Treaty ports in the Empire. The advent of these new rules rendered an increase in the Customs staff, principally Chinese, necessary. The actual Foreign staff (In-door) has not been increased to any very great extent; but the rapidly developing condition of the port, and the great increase in the number of vessels trading to it, made it necessary to augment the Examining and Tidewaiter staff, and it looks as if yet many more men would have to be employed.

The opening, in 1898, of the Hupeh Salt Likin Collectorate, under a Deputy Commissioner, with a staff of one Foreign Assistant and two Chinese Writers, has to be noted. To it is paid the portion of the salt revenue pledged as guarantee for repayment of an Anglo-German loan made to China.

(u.) Undoubtedly, from a Foreign point of view, the most marked development has been in the direction of railways. The Lu-Han, or Pei-Han, line is in course of construction, and at this end trains are running to a distance of some 100 miles. Troops have already been moved to distant parts by means of this line, and as time goes on it will be used more and more; and the effect it must have on matters military and industrial will be enormous.

Generally, it may be said that matters military, industrial, and administrative have developed beyond all expectation. The Viceroy's Military College at Wuchang is training men and turning out excellent soldiers. The Cotton Mills, the Iron Works, and Gun Factory are a proof of industrial development; and the general condition of the province, in spite of the

troublesome times gone through during the decade, is a proof of administrative development. Far-seeing, energetic, and upright, the Viceroy has made the provinces under his rule what they are, and given them the possibilities for the future which seem so near realisation. The bubble of old conservatism has been pricked pretty often during late years, and will ere long burst and disappear, and the chapter on developments in the next Decennial Report should be one of intense interest.

(v.) The Protestant and Catholic missionary societies mentioned in the last Decennial Report are still working in this district.

The Italian Franciscan Mission, which was established in 1839, confines its attention to Western Hupeh. Attached to it are 14 Foreign and 22 Native priests, and 40 Native catechists, in charge of over 100 churches and chapels and several schools. This mission claims 18,664 baptised converts, and has nearly 600 scholars in its schools. There is a convent, situated on the British Concession, controlled by this mission, with a staff of 27 European sisters and 30 Native helpers. Within the convent walls live some 1,300 Chinese girls and 157 old women, all of whom are taught lace-making, etc. A hospital for Natives, with some thousand of in and out patients, is also supported by the mission funds.

The Spanish Augustinian Mission, which works in Southern Hunan, has 22 Foreign and 2 Native priests, and some 1,500 converts.

Of the Protestant missions, the most important may be said to be the London Mission, which started work in 1861, and which is under the direction of the well-known and highly respected pioneer missionary, Dr. GRIFFITH JOHN. The society works in all parts of Hupeh and Hunan, and has many hospitals, dispensaries, and schools, and one asylum for lepers. It claims 4,717 baptised converts.

The American Episcopal Mission has made great strides during the decade, and has some 3,350 converts. The work of the mission extends up and down the Yangtze. A few months ago a new see, that of Hankow, was established, and the Rev. JAMES A. INGLE was consecrated the first Bishop.

In addition, the China Inland Mission, and many other societies, are working in both Hupeh and Hunan, and the troubles of 1900, which caused so much suffering and misery to their members, seem to have stirred up one and all to renewed vigour.

(w.) The guilds referred to in the last Decennial Report are still in existence, and no new ones have been added.

Hupeh and Hunan have guilds in every province of the Empire.

(x.) His Excellency CHANG CHI-HUNG has, with the exception of a short period during the Japanese war, when he officiated as Viceroy at Nanking, remained in office as Viceroy of Hupeh and Hunan during the decade.

Of celebrated officials who have sprung from the two provinces, the most notable are: TAO MO (陶模), a Hunanese, now Viceroy of Kwangtung; LI HSING-JUI (李興銳), a Hunanese, now Governor of Kiangsi; JAO YING-CHI (饒應祺), a Hupeh man, now Governor of Sin-kiang;

and CH'EN HSIAO-FÊN (陳學葵), CHANG PEI-HSI (張百熙), and LI FU-TSAO (李拔藻), the first from Hunan and the other two from Hupeh, now Vice-Presidents of Boards in Peking.

(y.) No literary work of any special merit has appeared during the decade.

It may be of interest to mention the appearance of the following newspapers: the "Hsiang Hsiao Pao" (湘學報), said to have been a journal which advocated the doctrines of the celebrated reformer K'ANG YU-WEI, and which lasted only some 18 months; the "Han Pao" (漢報), which was published regularly for 10 years, but in 1900 was suppressed, the editor being implicated in the threatened uprising of that year. A commercial newspaper under the Viceroy's auspices was lately published, styled the "Shang Wu Pao" (商務報).

(z.) In the last Decennial Report appears this sentence: "The general consensus of opinion with regard to the trade of Hankow is that it is progressing steadily, and that when the time comes for writing the next Decennial Report, it will be found that the year 1901 will compare more favourably with 1891 than 1891 compares with 1881." It seems safe to say that this prophecy has been fulfilled, and one may go further, and assert that when the period 1902 to 1911 has to be reviewed, the many and great possibilities which have been prophesied in the present Report will have been realised.

There is every indication that the future of, not only Hankow, but of the two provinces Hunan and Hupeh, is one of vast growth and development, from every point of view. The barricade of hatred of everything new has been broken down, and the march of progress has begun. One can but trust that in the path of advance will also be found peace and content.

For the data with which I have been enabled to compile this Report, and for much labour in collecting it, I am deeply indebted to Mr. J. MENCARINI, of the Customs staff.

ERSKINE T. PYM,

Acting Commissioner of Customs.

CUSTOM HOUSE,

HANKOW, 31st December 1901.

APPENDICES.

APPENDIX No. 1.

SHIPPING: TOTAL TONNAGE, FOREIGN AND COASTWISE, INWARDS AND OUTWARDS,
UNDER DIFFERENT FLAGS, 1892-1901.

FLAG.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	TOTAL.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
British.....	935,034	992,248	984,345	959,043	1,026,310	1,109,853	1,101,059	1,131,495	1,135,487	1,162,621	10,537,495
American.....	997	2,124	2,552	1,923	1,285	20,238	29,119
German.....	4,596	11,074	2,838	4,954	13,778	232,504	555,395	825,139
French.....	24	72	96
Dutch.....	8	8
Danish.....	852	...	4,978	...	5,830
Spanish.....	216	...	216
Swedish & Norwegian	6,672	8,932	35,740	10,222	8,614	22,562	9,628	3,654	106,024
Russian.....	27,504	29,744	35,316	36,896	44,956	41,430	40,078	53,688	32,048	48,948	390,608
Austrian.....	75,406	36,038	2,634	4,328	118,406
Belgian.....	2,174	2,440	...	4,614
Japanese.....	1,680	64,198	121,216	220,281	380,006	687,381
Chinese.....	434,889	483,266	488,687	508,276	568,307	616,575	609,753	629,195	626,148	602,976	5,568,072
TOTAL.....	1,486,778	1,541,296	1,508,348	1,513,147	1,686,387	1,783,042	1,832,060	1,976,031	2,267,673	2,678,246	18,273,008
Foreign flags.....	1,051,889	1,058,030	1,019,661	1,004,871	1,118,080	1,165,467	1,222,307	1,346,836	1,641,525	2,075,270	12,704,936
Native flag.....	434,889	483,266	488,687	508,276	568,307	616,575	609,753	629,195	626,148	602,976	5,568,072

APPENDIX No. 2.

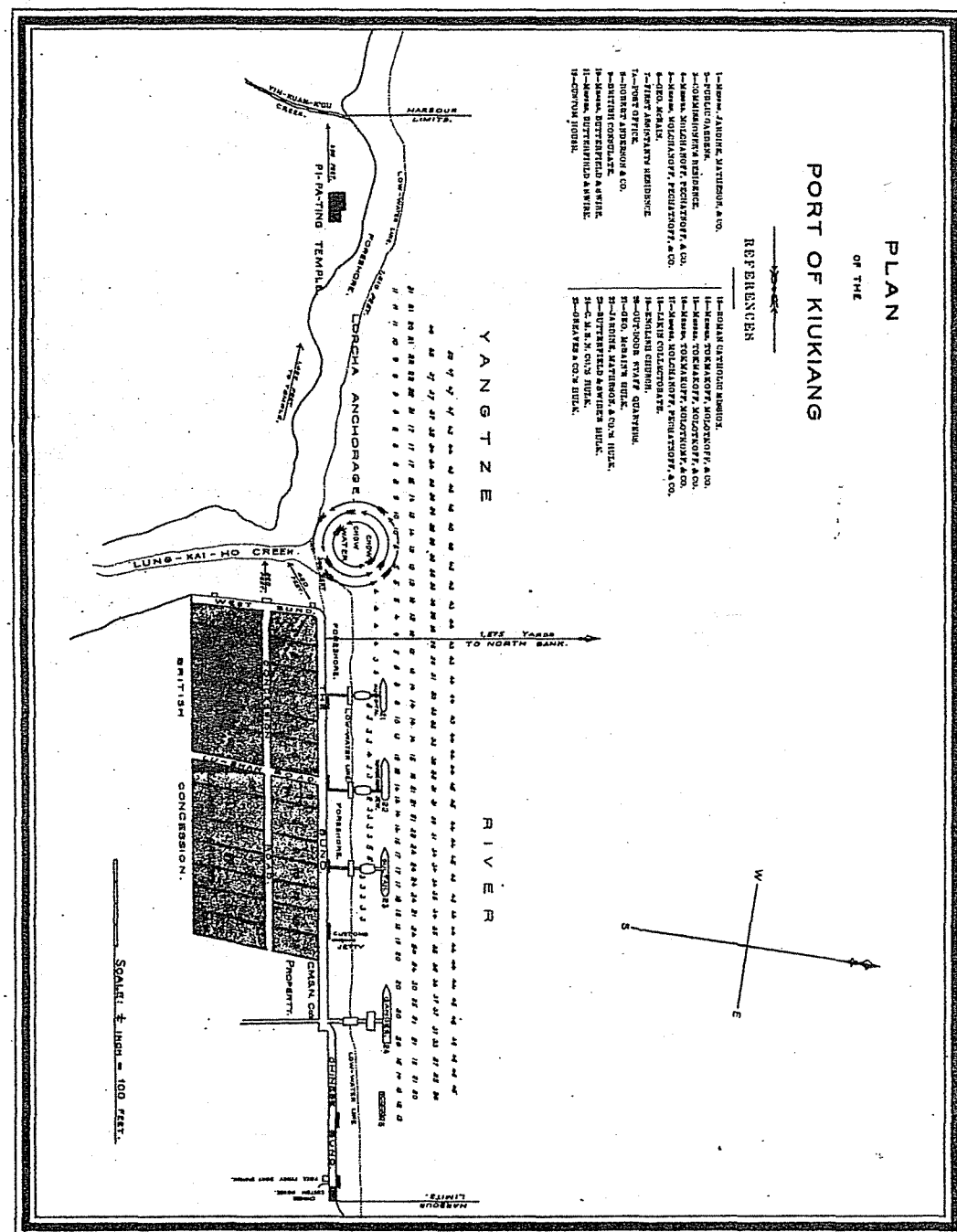
PRINCIPAL LIKIN DUES LEVIED AT HANKOW.

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier.	LIKIN DUES.
EXPORTS.		
Salt.....	Per 8 bags (=7.50 piculs)	<i>Ta</i> 6.48 <i>Cash.</i>
Cow hides.....	Per piece	9
Goat skins.....	"	2
Buffalo hides.....	"	9
Nutgalls.....	Per picul	100
Vegetable tallow.....	Per block	50
Animal tallow.....	Per picul	50
Green tallow.....	"	50
Wood oil.....	Per small basket	35
Buffalo horns.....	Per picul	50
China grass.....	Per picul (or 2 bales)	98
Tobacco.....	Per bale	90
Rhubarb.....	Per picul	140
Bristles.....	"	600
Raw silk.....	"	1,600
Sesamum.....	"	40
Turmeric.....	"	140
Yellow wax.....	"	400
White ".....	"	600
Waste silk (long).....	"	800
Wood oil.....	Per large basket	64
Frisonets, cocoons.....	Per picul	120
Long waste silk, No. 7.....	"	400
IMPORTS.		
Cotton yarn.....	Per package	800
White sugar.....	"	400
Brown ".....	"	268
Seaweed.....	"	140
Woollen piece goods.....	Per piece	300
Cotton " ".....	"	30

APPENDIX No. 3.

IMPERIAL CHINESE POST OFFICE: SUMMARY TABLE, 1897-1901.

HANKOW AND BRANCH OFFICES.	1897.		1898.		1899.		1900.		1901.	
	Chinese.	Foreign.	Chinese.	Foreign.	Chinese.	Foreign.	Chinese.	Foreign.	Chinese.	Foreign.
Letters received.....	38,950	47,937	62,949	44,829	85,977	49,623	189,419	51,164	228,932	46,385
Newspapers received.....	2,046	58,677	2,660	59,527	4,533	59,993	4,019	60,931	7,428	52,873
Letters despatched.....	47,699	61,264	69,871	46,823	87,483	46,939	169,959	46,026	283,833	49,696
Newspapers despatched.....	2,361	16,814	1,697	8,541	2,923	4,500	3,225	7,860	6,584	12,465
	No.	Value declared.	No.	Value declared.	No.	Value declared.	No.	Value declared.	No.	Value declared.
Parcels received and value declared.....	6,775	...	2,919	\$13,401.86	3,175	\$37,487.81	3,529	\$59,816.63	4,052	\$62,351.87
Parcels despatched and value declared.....	2,635	...	1,442	\$7,349.41	1,805	\$13,155.49	2,477	\$16,841.14	3,676	\$34,521.09
	Chinese and Foreign.		Chinese and Foreign.		Chinese and Foreign.		Chinese and Foreign.		Chinese and Foreign.	
Registered articles received.....	3,390		6,202		9,369		13,698		31,188	
" " despatched.....	4,352		7,327		9,764		21,368		31,506	
Articles posted at box offices.....		29,976		37,150	
	No.	Amount.	No.	Amount.	No.	Amount.	No.	Amount.	No.	Amount.
Money orders issued and amount remitted.....	759	\$5,512.05	1,110	\$8,559.23	1,262	\$9,785.16	3,434	\$27,587.12
Money orders cashed and amount remitted.....	643	\$5,229.75	1,418	\$11,106.15	2,898	\$24,447.61	3,219	\$26,574.07
	Amount paid.	Mails carried.	Amount paid.	Mails carried.	Amount paid.	Mails carried.	Amount paid.	Mails carried.	Amount paid.	Mails carried.
Sums paid to steamship com- panies and mails carried.....	\$937.50	2,635	\$780	2,862	\$3,943.50	5,245	\$4,398	5,791	\$4,740	6,384
Total revenue.....	\$8,051.51		\$22,471.86		\$29,700.23		\$32,389.98		\$43,616.37	



DECENNIAL REPORT, 1892-1901.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS.—In reviewing a decennial period, it must be remembered how very few radical changes occur in a port like Kiukiang in so short a time. What was written 10 years ago might almost, without exception, be written again. Changes there have been, and events have occurred which undoubtedly call for special mention; but so far as the political and commercial status of the port is concerned, there is, practically, no alteration. This Report, while it is to be hoped it may place on record some events worthy of note, will of a necessity, in some instances, be merely a repetition of what was written of the period 1882-91.

(a.) CHIEF OCCURRENCES.—Among the chief occurrences of the past decade may be mentioned:—

1. Opening of the Kuling sanatorium.
2. Establishment of the Imperial Post Office.
3. Likin of the Kiukiang prefecture placed under Foreign supervision.
4. Opening of the Poyang Lake to steam.
5. Extension of the port limits.
6. Riots and incendiarism.
7. A severe flood and subsequent famine.
8. Handing over of the Native Customs to the Foreign, in accordance with the terms of the Peace Protocol of the 7th September 1901.

1.—The Kuling sanatorium, situated on the Lu-shan range, some five hours journey by chair from Kiukiang, was first opened in 1896; but protracted negotiations had been going on since 1894 between the Rev. E. S. LITTLE and the Native authorities, and it was not till 1895 that the valley was finally purchased. Many have since contributed to the success of this hill settlement, but to Mr. LITTLE must be given the palm for finding such an ideal spot for a summer resort; and it is not too much to say that, had it not been for the untiring energy he displayed in overcoming the many objections and difficulties placed in his way by the officials and gentry, many Yangtze and Shanghai residents would have still to swelter in the heat of the plains, instead of renewing health and strength in the deliciously cool and invigorating air of the mountains.

2.—1897 saw the establishment of the Imperial Post Office, which has since continued to function without opposition. In this institution may be said to lie one of the keys of Chinese reform. Hitherto, it has only been at the Treaty ports, where Chinese come into

actual contact with Foreigners, that any knowledge of Western methods has been understood and, in many cases, appreciated, but to the greater portion of China's millions this knowledge has remained a closed book. True, missionaries have penetrated far into the interior; but their work has been confined to preaching and spreading the Gospel, rather than teaching Western laws and system of government, while the much-to-be-regretted discord existing between mission and mission has not improved matters. A young missionary once told me that while visiting a high Chinese official he was asked why Foreigners had so many religions, to which he replied that it was like the fingers of the hand—they were all different, yet sprang from the same root; but, said the official, the fingers do not quarrel, they are there to help each other! The opening of post offices in the interior means the opening of the eyes of the Chinese people, and the younger generation will emerge from the chrysalis of superstition, ignorance, and oppression to bask in the sun of Western enlightenment. Then no longer can the minds of the people be poisoned with fictitious and revolting accounts of Foreign barbarity—the gouging out of children's eyes to make medicine, and all the stories so dear to the Chinese mind when trying to sow the seed of unrest. The Foreign "gun-boat policy" will likewise disappear. To-day we have a weak, bigoted, superstitious, and ignorant China; with an enlightened China—*gave qui la touche!*

While, as has been stated above, the Imperial Post has worked without opposition, it cannot be said—so far as this port is concerned—that the undertaking has as yet been as successful, or as profitable, as was anticipated. The Chinese, as a nation, are naturally extremely conservative, and in the establishment of the Imperial Post Office they saw something to be feared rather than fostered. Their own postal hongs had run successfully and smoothly for hundreds of years, and fully met their requirements; yet these ancient institutions were to be gradually done away with, and their places taken by one of which they knew nothing. There were such mysterious things as stamps, which had to be affixed by the sender, who, in many instances, did not know which side had to be moistened! Then, again, could these flimsy-looking things be all that was required to convey a letter to its destination: would there be no further levy at the other end? Why, too, would they not accept a letter with its contents fully described on the cover? Was it not merely a device, a pretext, to refute any knowledge of such a cover having been sent, in the event of its being stolen or lost in transmission? Even the receipt for registration merely said that a cover to such and such an address had been received; it quite evaded the fact that it contained valuable documents or drafts. The Imperial Post Office, too, was a Government institution: could claims against it be made, and, if made, would they be impartially considered? By the old method the Native agencies became responsible for safe transmission, paying up in the event of loss, or, if failing to pay up, losing their patronage. These agencies, too, accommodated their patrons far more than the Imperial Post Office did: they sent special men round to collect letters, waited for letters that were being written, and delivered mails even when arriving late at night. The Imperial Post Office offered none of these advantages. Can it therefore be wondered at or can the Chinese be blamed for not taking immediately to the new establishment, or for looking on it with a certain amount of suspicion and even dread, seeming, as it did, to take away all advantages and give nothing in return.

The Imperial Post Office has now been working for nearly four years, and, while it still offers many disadvantages to a Chinese mind, it is getting better known and better liked. The troublous times of 1900 naturally delayed postal expansion enormously; but it is to be hoped that, with quiet once more restored, the future will show a ceaseless and steady advance, until not a town or hamlet is unrepresented by the Imperial Post Office.

3.—In March 1898, owing to the exigencies of the £16,000,000 loan, the Likin collection of the Kiukiang prefecture was placed under Foreign supervision. Up to the present, actual collection by a combined Foreign and Native staff has not taken place; but the presence of a Foreigner, specially detached from the Foreign Customs, to receive the collection and study Likin work, has in itself a beneficial effect on the officials connected with the administration, while being, at the same time, a guarantee of good faith to the bond-holders.

4.—The Poyang Lake was opened to steam navigation in April 1898. Turning to Mr. DREW's Kiukiang Trade Report for the year 1869, we find the following remarks:—

"*Steam needed on the Poyang Lake.*—So far, then, as figures of Import, Export, and Revenue are an indication, Kiukiang has done quite as well as the average of the ports. The merchant who imports goods from the West, the shipping interest, the Native dealer (as has been said), and the authorities who receive the Revenue have no right to complain of disappointed expectations. But when we have said this, we have said all. A greater degree of prosperity than exists might have been attained, and may yet be reached under altered conditions; but the alteration must be a radical one. Our communication with the consuming and exporting districts must be improved. At present Kiukiang labours under a disadvantage, in comparison with other ports, which is peculiar to her and exceptional: she is shut off to an unusual degree from the country which buys her Imports and produces the Exports. Destitute of even a tolerable communication by land, she is obliged to send away and to receive goods by water. But here what in any other land would be hailed as a great natural advantage becomes a misfortune; for a dangerous and stormy lake must be traversed, in slow and primitive vessels, so utterly ill adapted for the purpose that they cannot voyage when the wind is adverse, and that less than half a gale suffices to drive them into harbour for shelter or to strew them in wrecks along the shore. It is not a rare occurrence that in storms here—and not necessarily severe ones—two or three of these miserable shells are dashed on the beach or founder in front of the Settlement. The consequence is that places which ought to be a day's journey for goods from here are virtually as far away from each other as New York is from San Francisco. Boats freighted with so costly a cargo as Tea lie at Ta-ku-t'ang for 10 or more days, not unfrequently, waiting for a wind suitable for making the run of 27 miles to this port. If at length they are favoured, well and good; if they reach Hu-k'ou and the wind becomes adverse, they turn and put back to the anchorage at Ta-ku-t'ang, and wait again. I have been at Nan-k'ang-fu on a pleasant June day, when nothing worse than a fresh breeze was blowing, and yet found it impossible to hire a boat, large or small, to attempt the lake. An acquaintance here tells me of his starting early in December from Nan-ch'ang to return to

Anking for the Chinese New Year holidays: he was over 30 days in making a journey which would be made in Europe in a single night. But it is needless to multiply instances. So slow and uncertain is the communication that Piece Goods reach their destination by land, taking four or five days to do what a steamer would do cheaper in one day. Other cargo, of a bulky kind—Lead, Seaweed, Cuttle-fish, etc.—is obliged to take conveyance in boats, and to put up with whatever hindrances from the weather may befall it.

"It has already been demonstrated that the introduction of steam vessels on the Poyang would cheapen the cost of Imports to the consumers of them. It would extend, too, the limits of the receiving district. That it would facilitate the conveyance of Tea to Shanghai from the mouths of the rivers which bring it down to the lake is equally certain. Treasure would find its way securely to the Tea districts, and piracy by day or night would be at an end. A larger quantity of Green Tea would come in this way than does at present—a consideration of no little consequence to the Duty-receiving authorities of the province,—while the increased consumption of Imports would add liberally to the Likin revenue.

"The interests advanced by the measure in question might be almost exclusively Chinese. It is the Chinese who ought to form a company for navigating the Poyang by steam; the mines of Lo-p'ing should supply the Coal; and Chinese merchants would conduct the trade. But with the Government such as it is, steamers, when they come, will have to be ostensibly, if not actually, the property of Foreigners. But the advantage of Kiukiang to the Foreigner must continue to consist, as it does now, solely in the share he enjoys of the carrying trade, and in his being able to depend on its capacity to take off Piece Goods to a certain limit. I confess I cannot see what is ever to restore to Kiukiang, or to any other port that might be substituted for it in the neighbourhood, a Settlement crowded with Foreign residents, as it formerly had. Misconstructions of the Treaty in respect of Transit Passes, and the Likin taxation, have no doubt had some influence in discouraging trade; but these have done very little to drive Foreign merchants away, compared with what has been brought about by far more natural and simple causes.

"The opening of the Poyang to steam is not likely to affect so much the local Foreign interest—though some believe that it would revive our prosperity as a Settlement—as the interest of the original importers at Shanghai and the Chinese merchants here, and the myriads of people of Kiangsi. It is a thing which might have been done with far less detriment to Native shipping at the time the port was opened—when the lake had been half swept of its commerce by the Taiping scourge—than now, and every day the Chinese put it off will make the change more serious when it comes at last.

"It is not, perhaps, generally borne in mind that the authorities of this neighbourhood collect a considerable revenue from Tonnage Dues on Native craft. Kiukiang—with Ta-ku-t'ang, where there is a branch office—is the seat of one of the old Imperial *Kuan*, or Custom Houses, and its receipts, amounting annually to some *Ta* 260,000, come nearly half from the assessment on tonnage, a vessel paying once for every voyage she makes. The Superintendent, being expected to supply the full annual due with regularity, or to make good any deficiency from his private purse, is not unnaturally averse to any change, like putting small steamers on

the lake, which will to a certainty cut off these receipts. He will not, therefore, of himself, listen for an instant to the measure desired. A decree from Peking reducing the quota of the Native Custom House, or the substitution of some new plan for collecting its equivalent, is necessary before he would ever think of favouring steam on the lake. Again, a special levy of 2, and sometimes 3, *fén* Likin is collected on goods passing the lake's mouth in either direction, to help to support the gun-boats which garrison its waters; and 10 *fén* Likin is charged, as a rule, on all goods at different places between one end of the lake and the other. Provision would have to be made in any scheme of opening the Poyang for some compensation for the loss of these levies, or the influence of the military and civil officials of the province, from the highest to the lowest, are at once zealously enlisted against it—and a suitable equivalent for them would not, I imagine, be hard to devise."

The lake has now been opened to steam for over three years; but the advantages which seemed likely to accrue from this opening have, so far, not been realised. The reason is, however, not far to seek. The eagerness with which Foreign merchants pressed for the opening of inland waters to steam navigation was followed, at this port, by an even more marked inertness to do anything further; and thus it is that, so far, only Chinese-owned launches ply on the lake, and these, not daring to claim their rights, merely take passengers and tow passenger-boats, while cargo still comes and goes in the antiquated way. The officials—as Mr. DREW explained,—jealously guarding their own interests, are loth to facilitate the introduction of steam, and would, in the event of launches taking or towing cargo, probably put all possible obstacles in their way. In this, too, they would be strongly supported by the junk-owners, who fear that the introduction of steam will mean the extinction of their business. Still, it would seem that could the authorities be got to take a less narrow-minded view, improved trade and increased Revenue must be the inevitable result.

5.—Early in 1901, to meet the constant application for hulk accommodation, the harbour limits were extended on the west to a ditch known as Yin-kuan-kou (殷管溝); but, so far, the extension has not met with favour in the eyes of the applicants, who complain that the Lung-k'ai Creek (龍開河), between the British Concession and the extension, cuts them off from a fair share of the trade, while the uncertainty of the current, owing to the "chow-chow" water, makes the approach to hulks moored in that locality both difficult and dangerous. The objection raised as to not getting a fair share of the trade may be true enough;—but late-comers cannot expect to get the accommodation that those long ago in the field have secured. The depreciation of the locality on account of "chow-chow" water seems, however, to be founded more on hearsay than on experience, the "chow-chow" water only existing at the mouth of the creek, some way from where hulks would naturally be placed, and the currents not being of such a serious nature as to cause either much difficulty or danger to approaching steamers.

6.—The rioting and incendiarism which, unhappily, occurred in the province during 1900 cannot be said to have been unexpected. Just as in Peking, before the Boxer outbreak, warnings were not wanting, so in Kiukiang there were constant rumours of the unrest existing in the interior. As early as 1899 the Catholics suffered the loss of a chapel at Ying-t'an (鷹潭), in the Kuang-hsin (廣信) prefecture, and one of the fathers had a narrow escape, being

captured by the mob and severely beaten. Happily, during 1900 no Europeans were killed in this province, though some were wounded and all ran great risks. Many of the converts, however, were cruelly murdered, and almost all suffered persecution of the most barbarous description. Under (k.) will be found a more detailed account of the troubles.

7.—With the troubles of 1900 over, it was hoped that the year 1901 would prove a good one for trade; but floods from the early part of July to late in August brought trade to a standstill, and caused a tremendous loss of both life and property. Later, famine, sickness, and increased taxation augmented the misery of the people to a fearful extent; and the year 1901 stands out as one of the most disastrous years Kiangsi has seen since the Taipings swept through her fertile valleys. Fuller particulars of the flood and famine will be found under (k.).

8.—On the 11th November 1901 the Native Customs at Kiukiang, and at Ta-ku-t'ang (大姑塘), some 7 miles from the entrance to the Poyang Lake, were placed under the control of the Foreign Customs. The handing over passed off quietly, and there seems every reason to believe that this new undertaking will be attended with success. Under (q.) will be found some further facts concerning the Native Customs.

(b.) TRADE OF THE PORT.—In the channels of trade no change has taken place, and commodities imported a decade ago still appear in our Returns; but considerable fluctuations have occurred in demand, and the difference in values is, in some cases, striking in the extreme.

In Exports, Tea, our principal source of Revenue, shows a big decline. Year by year Indian and Ceylon Teas obtain a firmer grip on the home markets, China Teas slowly but surely giving way before the fierce competition. Much has been said and much written on the decline of the China Tea trade, and various remedies suggested; but, so far, nothing has been done to help a trade that once commanded the world's markets. From remarks quoted in our annual Trade Reports, supplied by men intimately acquainted with the trade, two things seem to be essential before a recovery can be looked for: improved methods of manufacture and cultivation, and reduced taxation.

We all know what advantages would accrue from care in cultivation and manufacture; but few have any idea of what a picul of Tea has paid by the time it is exported, though the general opinion is, no doubt, that it has paid heavily. It may, therefore, be interesting to trace a picul of Tea from its place of production to the port of exportation. The under-mentioned list of charges, supplied to the writer by a Chinese Tea merchant, may be worthy of perusal:—

Kiangsi Teas.

Per Picul.

Ning-chou (甯州) Box Tea—

At I-ning-chou (義甯州)	K'u-p'ing Tta	1.2.5.0
" Tu-chia-pu (徐家埠)	"	0.0.2.5
" Ta-ku-t'ang (大姑塘)	"	0.3.0.0
" Kiukiang Customs	Hk.Tta	2.5.0.0

Per Picul.

Wu-ning (武甯) Box Tea—

By land: at Lung-k'ai-ho Barrier (龍開河

卡)	K'u-p'ing Tta	2.3.6.2
" " Kiukiang Customs	Hk.Tta	2.5.0.0
By water: at T'u-chia-pu (徐家埠)	K'u-p'ing Tta	1.4.0.0
" " Ta-ku-t'ang (大姑塘)	"	0.3.0.0
" " Kiukiang Customs	Hk.Tta	2.5.0.0

Hou-k'ou (河口) Box Tea—

At Hou-k'ou (河口)	K'u-p'ing Tta	1.2.5.0
" Ta-ku-t'ang (大姑塘)	"	0.3.0.0
" Kiukiang Customs	Hk.Tta	2.5.0.0

Fu-liang (浮梁) Box Tea—

At Ching-tê-chên (景德鎮)	K'u-p'ing Tta	1.9.0.0
" Ta-ku-t'ang (大姑塘)	"	0.3.0.0
" Kiukiang Customs	Hk.Tta	2.5.0.0

Anhwei Teas.

Per Picul.

Wu-yüan (婺源) Box Tea—

At Ching-tê-chên (景德鎮)	K'u-p'ing Tta	1.9.0.0
" Ta-ku-t'ang (大姑塘)	"	0.3.0.0
" Kiukiang Customs	Hk.Tta	2.5.0.0

Haiu-ning (休甯) and Chi-mên (祁門) Box Teas pay similar amounts to that coming from Wu-yüan.

It will thus be seen how heavily China Teas are handicapped, as compared with those of India and Ceylon, which pay no Export Duty. Whether reduced taxation and improved cultivation would ever restore to China her old supremacy is a moot point; but that it would secure to her a fair share of the trade, there seems little doubt.

Brick Tea manufactured at this port continues in ever-increasing demand, and since 1897 Ceylon Tea Dust has been freely imported to blend with the Chinese product. Here, again, China is at a disadvantage, Ceylon Tea Dust being, on deposit of a bond guaranteeing re-exportation within a year, imported Duty free, and—what seems to be more surprising—re-exported free, though going out as Brick Tea and *not* as Tea Dust. Only Black Tea is used in Kiukiang in the manufacture of Brick Tea.

Tablet Tea, which was manufactured in 1891 to the extent of 3,700 piculs, reached 6,547 piculs in 1895; but from that year it declined, only 1,008 piculs being exported in 1900. In 1901, the last year of the decade, a revival has taken place, 2,018 piculs leaving the port.

Green Tea, a large quantity of which finds its way to America, while, of course, being in general use in this country, shows but little difference in total exportation as compared with the period 1882-91, there being only a decrease of 13,402 piculs; whereas Black Tea shows a decline of 682,271 piculs as compared with the same period.

The following table shows the export of Tea during the last two decades :—

DESCRIPTION OF TEA.	1882-91.		1892-1901.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Hk.Tls.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Hk.Tls.</i>
Black.....	2,012,824	45,280,581	1,330,553	31,691,239
Green.....	412,930	9,183,679	398,528	12,166,001
Brick.....	259,268	1,894,158	342,760	2,989,622
Tablet.....	3,700 *	41,000	37,974	549,289

* Exported for the first time in 1891.

Of other Exports which yield a good Revenue may be mentioned Paper, Tobacco, Hemp, Indigo, Chinaware, and Grasscloth.

As regards Paper and Chinaware, I take the liberty of reproducing here some very interesting notes written by Mr. C. A. V. BOWRA, of the Customs Service, for the Paris Exhibition of 1900 :—

"Paper-making is a great and increasing industry in the province of Kiangsi. During the year 1898 the amount of Paper shipped at the port of Kiukiang reached a value of *Hk.Tls.* 1,094,067. But this only represents the exportation in Foreign vessels; there is, besides, no doubt, a very large quantity carried to all parts of China in Native vessels. Chinese paper is almost entirely consumed in China or in Foreign countries to which Chinese have emigrated.

"The Chinese use paper for a large variety of purposes. For instance, it is used in window-panes and in lanterns, in the place of glass; in the making of boot soles; their umbrellas are made of oiled paper; their pictures are not glazed and framed, but pasted upon paper scrolls. Paper articles of every description are burnt in religious ceremonies and sacrifices. There are also countless forms of paper for stationery, wrapping, and packing purposes.

"The history of the origin and development of such an important commodity must always be interesting. Unfortunately, no light can be thrown upon it. The Chinese have, it is true, given the credit of the discovery of paper to one TSAI LUN, a semi-mythical person, who is said to have died in A.D. 114. But the story can only be regarded as a fable. We must be content to say that, while in Europe the history of the discovery is obscured in the dimness of the mediæval period, in China it is lost in the mists of antiquity. China has the credit of being first in the field with the invention, preceding Europe, not by years, but by centuries.

"Various fibrous plants are used in paper-making. In Kiangsi, the principal materials used are bamboo and the bark of the *ch'u* (楮) tree, a species of mulberry (the *ch'u-sang* (楮桑): *Broussonetia papyrifera*, VENT.). This bark is called *kou p'i* (楮皮), *kou* being, apparently, another name of the same tree. It comes principally from the provinces in the viceroyalty of Hukwang. Paper manufactories exist in many parts of the Kiangsi province. The largest

mills are to be found in the eastern prefecture, Kuang-hsin-fu, towards the province of Chehkiang. An important point in the choice of a site for a mill is the proximity to a clear, rapid stream, in which the materials may be soaked and softened.

"The soaking in the stream is the first step in the process of manufacture. The stem of whatever plant is being used having been well softened by lying in the water for some days, the bark is removed from it, either by treading under foot or by cutting. It is then tied up in bundles and boiled in large kettles, to separate out the woody fibre. After this it is mixed with lime and pounded to a pulp in mortars, by means of a hammer with a long handle. A month later it is boiled again; after which it is put into bags and steeped in running water, to cleanse it from the lime. As soon as this is effected, it is exposed to the sun until it is thoroughly bleached. It is then pounded in a wooden mortar, mixed with ashes of the husk of the nut of the *wu-tung* (梧桐), or wood-oil tree, and wood ashes, in equal parts, mingled with warm water. The whole is beaten together till it becomes a thick, viscous liquor, which, after being reduced by a further admixture of water, is transferred to a large vat. Near this large vat, in the better mills, at least, is a drying stove of the shape of a house ridge, with smooth sides; in poorer mills, and for the commoner qualities of paper, drying purposes are met sufficiently by a smooth table. The workman dips his mould, or sieve, which is sometimes made only of bulrushes cut in narrow strips and mounted in a frame, into the vat, and then lifts it out again. The water passing through the mould, leaves the pulpy paper-stuff remaining in it. The frame of the mould is removed, and the bottom pressed against the side of the stove or placed upon the table. The sheet of paper adheres to the surface when the sieve is removed. Before the paper is dry, it is brushed over, on the outer surface, with a size made of rice; it is then stripped off in a finished condition. It has thus only one smooth surface, the Chinese custom being to use only one side of the paper for writing or printing."

The exportation of Paper, Fine and Coarse, during the decade was as follows :—

	PAPER, FINE.	PAPER, COARSE.
	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>
1892	27,321	98,852
1893	26,935	86,157
1894	23,510	79,601
1895	15,048	70,090
1896	20,639	109,365
1897	26,224	90,750
1898	30,129	131,013
1899	30,009	87,509
1900	12,926	62,949
1901	18,665	81,500
TOTAL	231,406	897,786

The value of the above exportation was *Hk.Tls.* 6,973,391, or *Hk.Tls.* 1,912,221 in excess of that exported during 1882-91. It will be seen, however, that while the value has gone up

considerably, the amount which left the port was 62,299 piculs less than during the previous decade, the amount exported then totalling 1,191,491 piculs.

Regarding Chinaware, Mr. Bowra wrote:—

"The town of King-tê-chên, though many of its former glories have departed, is still the chief centre of the porcelain manufacture in China. It derives its name from the Emperor CHÊN TSUNG, of the Northern Sung dynasty, who reigned from A.D. 998 to 1023, and the second period of whose reign was called King-tê. He may be considered the founder of these potteries. The fullest description that has been given of porcelain-making at King-tê-chên is that by Père D'ENTRECOLLES. This description is fully applicable to the present day, the only change to be recorded being that the quality of the work has generally deteriorated. The porcelain works of to-day are also very different in magnitude from what they were a century ago. They have sadly fallen off. The 3,000 furnaces, of which LONGFELLOW sings, with their million workmen, are reduced, according to latest accounts, to 120 furnaces and 160,000 hands. The Taiping rebels, in their victorious career along the Yangtze and throughout this province (Kiangsi), paid several visits to this place, and demolished nearly the whole of the works.

"The only fine porcelain now made is the "tribute" porcelain, of which a large supply is sent annually to Peking for the use of the Emperor. This was formerly baked in special furnaces, called *yu-yao* (御窑) or *kuan-yao* (官窑), Imperial or official furnaces, as distinguished from the *wai-yao* (外窑) or *min-yao* (民窑), "outside" or popular furnaces. But since the destruction wrought by the Taipings the Imperial furnaces have been in ruins, and all the porcelain is baked in the "outside" furnaces. Only quite perfect pieces are sent to the Court; hence, many pieces baked for the Imperial use, but rejected in favour of a supposed superior piece, or for some flaw or imperfection, find their way into the Kiukiang market. These are the best modern pieces open to purchase by the general public. Many of the patterns on the "tribute" porcelain of the present date are precisely the same as those forwarded to the Emperor CHIA CHING in A.D. 1528.

"The porcelain shipped from Kiukiang is all of an inferior quality. There is little demand among Natives for the finer and more expensive qualities. The Imperial porcelain apart, King-tê-chên is now a huge manufactory of cheap household chinaware. The glorious masterpieces of the past are no longer produced; but the potteries serve to supply the enormous demand for cheap utensils and ornaments. These may be full of flaws, and want much in finish, style of decoration, and colouring, but they possess the practical qualities of hardness, solidity, and usefulness.

"The same method of manufacture prevails now as obtained in the time of Père D'ENTRECOLLES. The materials used are two sorts of earth—one called *pai-tun-tzû* (白土子), a hard, white, fusible quartz; the other, *kao-ling* (高嶺), decomposed felspar of granite. King-tê-chên does not produce the ingredients; they are imported from other places in Kiangsi and from Anhwei. Other materials have been tried from time to time, of which soapstone is the principal. The glaze is obtained by mixing the ashes of a fern growing in the neighbourhood of the town with pounded *pai-tun-tzû*, thus forming a silicate of flint and alkali. The want

of development and improvement in the painting and decoration of chinaware is to be largely ascribed to the low estimation in which artists and artificers are held in China; in the potteries they are treated like ordinary labourers. Each man is confined to one small detail of the scheme of decoration, e.g., one paints circles, another flowers, another animals. Each workman performs, not only a stereotyped task, but follows always a stereotyped pattern. The results are the stifling of individuality and the checking of development.

"It is difficult to ascertain what the annual output of the King-tê-chên potteries may be. According to Native authorities, in a good year nowadays the total production reaches a value of more than 3 million taels; in the old prosperous days a value of 5 millions was often reached. Some 48,000 piculs of Porcelain were exported in Foreign vessels from Kiukiang during 1898, representing a value of *Hk.Ta* 510,326. Thus, only about a sixth of the trade passed through the Treaty port; the rest goes to all parts of China in Native boats. It is said that junks come up from Shanghai to the Poyang Lake laden with Kerosene Oil and return with cargoes of Chinaware. The Customs Returns do not represent the full quantity carried by steamers, as hardly a Native passenger leaves or passes through Kiukiang without carrying away in his luggage some pieces of Chinaware, probably to be retailed at a profit elsewhere."

Below are given the figures of exportation from Kiukiang, in Foreign-type vessels, during the decade:—

	CHINAWARE, FINE.	CHINAWARE, COARSE.
	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>
1892	11,609	20,602
1893	12,582	21,011
1894	16,367	22,622
1895	11,777	22,848
1896	15,525	30,790
1897	16,722	32,552
1898	18,203	30,443
1899	18,493	35,074
1900	9,947	18,089
1901	10,068	15,355
TOTAL	141,293	249,386

Thus, during the decade under review, Fine and Coarse Chinaware was exported to the extent of 390,679 piculs, valued at *Hk.Ta* 3,219,464—an increase of 179,938 piculs in quantity, and *Hk.Ta* 2,269,788 in value, over the period 1882-91.

Tobacco is grown in considerable quantities in the province, and exported both in the Prepared form and in the Leaf—the Leaf being, however, in far greater demand than the Prepared variety. The chief producing districts are the Nan-ch'ang (南昌), Jan-chou (饒州), Kan-chou (贛州), Kuang-hsin (廣信), and Kiukiang prefectures. To show what an

ever-increasing demand there is for Tobacco, it is only necessary to glance at the following figures, which cover the period from 1872 to 1901:—

	QUANTITY.	VALUE.
	Piculs.	Hk.Tls.
1872-81	163,657	701,332
1882-91	437,282	1,535,666
1892-1901	747,501	3,697,713

Leaf Tobacco is chiefly exported to Japan. But direct shipment is impossible, on account of the prohibitive Import Duty; it is therefore shipped to Amoy, where it is bought up by Japanese merchants, who send it *via* Formosa to Japan.

Hemp is produced in the Yuan-chou (袁州), Fu-chou (撫州), Jui-chou (瑞州), Chien-ch'ang (建昌), and Kiukiang prefectures. The bulk of this produce was, till quite recently, shipped to Tientsin; towards the end of the decade, however, it was largely bought up by German firms for shipment to Europe. It will be seen that the exportation of Hemp has more than doubled during the last decade, as compared with the period 1882-91; the figures are as follows:—

	QUANTITY.	VALUE.
	Piculs.	Hk.Tls.
1882-91	276,676	2,057,206
1892-1901	555,541	4,481,895

Indigo, produced at Lo-p'ing (樂平) and P'eng-tzū (彭澤), as well as around Kiukiang, was exported to the extent of 290,925 piculs, valued at Hk.Tls. 1,682,775. The growing of Indigo, to any large extent, in Kiangsi has only recently sprung up, no comparative figures can therefore be given.

Grasscloth, which is produced at Yuan-chou-fu (袁州府), Fu-chou-fu (撫州府), Jui-chou-fu (瑞州府), Chien-ch'ang-fu (建昌府), and in the Kiukiang prefecture, while not being so good as that coming from Kwangtung, is still in very fair demand. The exportation of Fine and Coarse Grasscloth during the past two decades was as under:—

	QUANTITY.	VALUE.
	Piculs.	Hk.Tls.
1882-91	58,162	2,090,538
1892-1901	92,406	2,641,845

At the end of this Report will be found a comparative table of the principal Exports during the past 10 years (*see* Appendix No. 1).

In Native Imports, the most conspicuous items are Cotton Yarn, Bags of all kinds, Paper Fans, Mulberry Trees, and White and Brown Sugar.

Cotton Yarn was first introduced in 1895, when 2,310 piculs reached the port. This article has since been in fair demand, 41,578 piculs being imported in 1899 and 31,229 piculs in 1901. This Yarn, which is manufactured in Shanghai, is given every encouragement, and

should in time be able to compete with that of India and Japan. It pays merely an Export Duty, importation and subsequent transit into the interior being free. The total amount which arrived during the seven years amounted to 159,059 piculs.

Sericulture, first attempted in 1881-82, with little success, was again taken up in 1896, 42,140 Mulberry Trees being imported; the following year 440,700 Trees reached the port, and large quantities continued to arrive till 1901, when importations ceased. None of our Reports deal with this subject. In the British Consular Trade Report, however, for the year 1896, Mr. OCTAVIUS JOHNSTON remarks that "About the middle of the year a levy for the advancement of sericulture in the province was agreed to be raised, ostensibly on Native Opium, under the name of voluntary contributions, and all Opium dealers, including smoking divans, were pressed to pay." Whether it had any effect on the production of Silk is left to conjecture. From such information as I have been able to obtain, it appears that the Provincial Treasurer of Kiangsi, FANG JU-I (方汝翼), was the promoter of the scheme, and, with the consent of the Governor, TÊ SHOU (德壽), a tax varying with the size of the Opium shops, from \$3.40 to \$34 per annum, was imposed for the establishment of sericulture. Unfortunately, however, most of the trees died, the soil being either unfavourable or the planters unskilful. To whatever cause it may be attributed, the undertaking turned out a complete failure, the small quantity of Silk produced being poor in quality and dear in price.

White and Brown Sugar reached the port in fair quantities up to 1899, when importation practically ceased, their places being taken by the Foreign article.

Taken as a whole, the trade in Native Imports is not of such a striking nature as to call for much comment; a comparative table of the principal goods coming under this heading during the decade is, however, given at the end of this Report (*see* Appendix No. 2).

Turning to Foreign Imports, Cotton Piece Goods show considerable fluctuation, both as regards demand and value, which a glance at the following figures for the past two decades will readily show:—

YEAR.	Shirtings.		T-Cloths.		Drills.		Sheetings.		Jeans and Twills.	
	Pieces.	Hk.Tls.	Pieces.	Hk.Tls.	Pieces.	Hk.Tls.	Pieces.	Hk.Tls.	Pieces.	Hk.Tls.
1882.....	244,823	434,941	95,317	128,178	8,632	20,459	8,980	19,963	3,016	6,184
1883.....	211,251	382,191	85,922	103,263	5,252	12,638	9,185	18,543	1,510	3,328
1884.....	213,642	342,727	64,828	82,987	1,845	3,584	6,675	17,529	979	1,805
1885.....	265,639	437,393	64,389	81,343	3,768	7,548	16,813	40,100	589	1,143
1886.....	231,296	383,894	55,533	71,432	3,305	6,130	22,785	53,722	881	1,370
1887.....	198,995	353,820	49,170	67,813	4,880	10,605	28,209	66,087	200	462
1888.....	230,844	391,893	50,836	73,363	1,835	3,844	32,910	73,963
1889.....	240,392	410,577	50,283	74,597	2,395	5,195	41,627	97,809
1890.....	257,946	438,826	41,987	62,301	1,560	3,507	37,380	85,775
1891.....	321,531	548,069	47,268	69,676	4,320	10,015	37,470	80,756
TOTAL.....	2,416,359	4,124,331	605,533	814,953	37,792	83,525	242,034	554,247	7,175	14,292

YEAR.	Chintzes and Prints.		Turkey Red Cloths.		Velvets and Velveteens.		Cotton Lastings.		Cotton Flannel and Cotton Spanish Stripes.	
	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.
1882.....	4,435	6,894	1,073	2,043	2,811	15,966
1883.....	3,735	5,272	1,593	2,259	2,386	13,678
1884.....	4,057	5,284	2,660	4,353	1,592	9,348	750	2,050
1885.....	5,815	7,057	3,647	4,797	2,964	17,784	1,787	5,168
1886.....	5,143	6,679	6,894	9,654	2,738	16,026	1,434	5,961
1887.....	9,366	14,758	9,988	16,932	2,422	14,185	1,753	7,820
1888.....	10,013	15,236	13,310	19,533	2,089	12,299	2,060	10,592
1889.....	12,183	18,969	19,731	30,256	2,796	17,818	2,675	14,319	1,376	3,235
1890.....	11,827	18,629	20,685	39,698	3,032	18,584	3,887	19,951	2,197	4,173
1891.....	17,006	30,644	32,172	51,631	2,848	18,736	7,896	30,158	3,179	5,033
TOTAL.....	83,580	129,422	117,753	181,156	25,678	154,424	22,242	96,019	6,752	12,441

YEAR.	Shirtings.		T-Cloths.		Drills.		Sheetings.		Jeans and Twills.	
	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.
1892.....	307,995	529,146	42,205	60,029	5,319	12,098	38,881	76,207	870	1,560
1893.....	214,452	378,600	28,164	41,705	3,840	8,364	26,330	47,018	640	1,190
1894.....	171,389	348,072	15,490	26,043	4,215	11,365	25,928	50,029	865	1,714
1895.....	205,417	418,498	19,973	29,653	4,816	14,648	26,443	73,008	1,010	2,391
1896.....	263,708	733,207	27,955	62,824	7,135	23,476	59,177	179,184	2,060	5,338
1897.....	282,280	834,775	28,704	69,068	9,820	33,816	58,608	179,554	2,520	7,504
1898.....	270,246	858,278	27,162	65,188	9,220	30,468	69,516	219,923	2,600	6,973
1899.....	264,824	858,788	30,710	75,703	11,760	40,820	86,008	281,223	4,924	12,999
1900.....	194,322	741,914	18,520	51,774	12,895	46,744	53,249	201,443	4,020	10,654
1901.....	243,620	938,450	17,971	50,488	13,390	50,258	60,472	230,028	6,240	16,740
TOTAL.....	2,368,253	6,639,728	256,854	532,475	82,410	272,057	502,612	1,537,389	25,749	67,069

YEAR.	Chintzes and Prints.		Turkey Red Cloths.		Velvets and Velveteens.		Cotton Italians and Lastings.		Cotton Flannel and Cotton Spanish Stripes.	
	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.
1892.....	21,494	39,941	33,345	55,126	3,163	20,374	9,118	31,057	4,113	6,490
1893.....	20,355	38,083	22,689	37,139	2,675	17,359	10,338	37,661	5,389	9,257
1894.....	13,669	27,317	11,772	21,483	2,231	14,168	6,806	29,775	3,585	7,377
1895.....	13,843	27,410	10,758	21,912	2,867	17,202	10,193	43,980	2,604	5,736
1896.....	18,220	32,711	13,206	32,379	2,598	17,391	14,772	76,980	5,741	12,742
1897.....	24,245	41,252	14,477	30,744	2,870	18,269	21,969	130,856	7,688	18,383
1898.....	20,204	31,577	13,615	30,168	2,234	13,551	25,272	154,692	7,608	19,721
1899.....	18,961	28,481	12,452	27,998	2,632	16,231	31,911	188,292	9,926	24,310
1900.....	13,055	22,497	10,728	25,333	2,312	15,873	27,789	172,356	7,696	20,184
1901.....	15,474	25,167	12,129	25,391	2,328	16,368	40,825	243,502	14,687	38,115
TOTAL.....	179,520	314,436	155,171	307,673	25,910	166,786	198,993	1,100,151	69,037	162,315

Woollen Goods still exhibit a steady decline; the importations during the past 20 years were as follows:—

YEAR.	QUANTITY.		YEAR.	QUANTITY.	
	Pieces.	Hk. Tls.		Pieces.	Hk. Tls.
1882.....	37,534	376,169	1892.....	32,225	271,361
1883.....	33,600	316,378	1893.....	24,536	208,102
1884.....	36,877	303,884	1894.....	19,735	171,375
1885.....	37,805	291,056	1895.....	21,010	183,331
1886.....	39,242	315,073	1896.....	24,364	254,649
1887.....	36,836	299,776	1897.....	23,285	264,664
1888.....	31,547	263,874	1898.....	19,354	221,353
1889.....	35,148	300,460	1899.....	25,995	181,882
1890.....	36,546	296,066	1900.....	12,890	143,389
1891.....	39,742	319,116	1901.....	13,979	165,462
TOTAL.....	364,877	3,081,852	TOTAL.....	217,371	2,065,568

In Metals, the Report for 1882-91 showed a considerable decrease; during the past decade a revival has taken place, though the figures have not attained the total of the period 1872-81, when the value reached Hk. Tls. 2,481,914. The values of importations of Metals during the past two decades were as follows:—

Hk. Tls.		Hk. Tls.	
1882	253,372	1892	155,837
1883	158,325	1893	129,037
1884	167,789	1894	176,842
1885	189,852	1895	196,664
1886	183,206	1896	207,286
1887	148,616	1897	232,269
1888	170,087	1898	233,765
1889	187,184	1899	240,248
1890	153,205	1900	237,172
1891	163,316	1901	305,298
TOTAL	1,774,952	TOTAL	2,114,418

Cotton Yarn is in ever-increasing demand, the Indian variety easily taking first place. Indian Yarn was first imported in 1888, when 19,123 piculs reached Kiukiang; in 1901, the closing year of the decade under review, no less than 87,033 piculs were imported.

1895 saw Japanese Yarn placed on the market, the importation for that year being 3,328 piculs. In 1896 only 1,333 piculs arrived; but from that year to 1899 it bounded up, the importations being 11,788 piculs, 32,060 piculs, and 51,881 piculs, respectively, and it looked as if it would obtain the monopoly of the market. But from that time it declined as rapidly as it had gone up, the year 1901 seeing only an importation of 14,647 piculs.

Of English Yarn, there is nothing worthy of note, Indian and Japanese having entirely taken its place.

The following are comparative tables of the importations of Cotton Yarn for the past two decades:—

YEAR.	KIND OF YARN.	QUANTITY.	VALUE.
		<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>
1882.....	English	4,343	105,120
1883.....	"	5,708	142,360
1884.....	"	5,225	110,993
1885.....	"	7,346	146,217
1886.....	"	14,890	306,912
1887.....	"	19,683	433,541
1888.....	"	4,473	547,152
1889.....	Indian	19,123	
	English	4,608	482,859
1890.....	Indian	14,741	
	English	3,741	759,162
1891.....	Indian	29,918	
	English	2,739	787,962
	Indian	35,472	
TOTAL.....		172,010	3,822,278

YEAR.	KIND OF YARN.	QUANTITY.	VALUE.
		<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>
1892.....	English	1,854	37,511
	Indian	50,382	1,022,134
1893.....	English	789	16,290
	Indian	24,474	498,514
1894.....	English	1,210	27,073
	Indian	31,148	627,734
1895.....	English	1,956	47,598
	Indian	45,403	848,136
	Japanese	3,328	61,719
1896.....	English	1,194	31,050
	Indian	58,561	1,289,032
	Japanese	1,333	28,059
1897.....	English	1,250	36,388
	Indian	52,381	1,329,147
	Japanese	11,788	291,960
1898.....	English	1,291	38,523
	Indian	46,058	1,181,971
	Japanese	32,060	778,105
1899.....	English	1,083	30,727
	Indian	49,127	1,135,534
	Japanese	51,881	1,149,310
1900.....	English	451	15,431
	Indian	43,045	1,092,217
	Japanese	39,023	948,377
1901.....	English	159	6,144
	Indian	87,033	2,260,882
	Japanese	14,047	341,769
TOTAL.....		652,969	15,161,335

No notice was taken of Kerosene Oil in the last Decennial Report, though 1,814,272 gallons were sent into the interior under Transit Passes. As the importation of this commodity is ever on the increase, the following comparative tables, giving the imports for the two decennial periods, may not be out of place:—

—	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>
American.....	48,510	134,740	271,430	557,280	470,190	316,130	259,960	322,176	396,950	514,800

—	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>
American.....	782,020	2,315,490	1,537,850	1,184,904	1,542,626	2,162,532	2,302,920	1,937,826	1,183,810	1,652,280
Russian.....	16,100	11,700	43,900	189,000	613,300	725,716	513,500	926,900	1,173,420	1,307,020
Sumatra.....	200,600	7,500	37,800	85,500

The total value of our Transit trade shows a striking advance, as compared with the period 1882-91, when the value only amounted to *Hk. Ta.* 12,681,536, the value of the period under review being *Hk. Ta.* 33,465,207. Another proof of the increased popularity of the Transit Pass system lies in the number of Passes applied for. In 1891, the concluding year of the previous decennial period, 5,385 Passes were taken out, while in 1901 41,572 were issued. While the volume of the trade has thus greatly increased, the places of consumption remain precisely the same as those given in the Report for 1882-91.

The following tables show the principal Imports sent into the interior under Transit Passes during the last two decades:—

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
Grey Shirtings.....	<i>Pieces</i>	176,756	145,614	128,160	152,050	132,863	124,087	129,818	130,178	152,907	173,266
White ".....	"	19,578	20,571	25,418	28,653	30,071	28,196	34,271	34,170	38,028	46,596
T-Cloths.....	"	87,285	75,756	59,862	55,892	47,545	43,020	45,470	44,077	36,807	39,053
Sheetings.....	"	8,120	8,599	11,465	14,604	17,090	23,105	29,940	33,512	22,560	26,120
Drills.....	"	6,660	4,620	1,600	2,359	2,130	2,390	1,085	1,620	1,220	3,145
Chintzes, Turkey Reds, Dyed	"										
Brocades, etc.	"	6,211	6,532	6,729	7,590	10,914	16,612	19,573	22,783	29,968	38,011
Velvets.....	"	1,692	1,369	912	1,818	1,688	1,512	1,222	1,565	1,944	1,825
Cotton Lastings.....	"	1,080	1,834	1,690	2,341	3,443	4,945
" Yarn, English.....	<i>Piculs.</i>	4,014	5,127	4,890	6,723	14,476	19,446	4,071	4,584	3,447	2,319
" " Indian.....	"	28,838	23,340	27,155	23,881	24,746	24,434	21,758	19,687	24,769	25,545
Woollen Goods.....	<i>Piculs.</i>	22,936	14,808	18,003	17,765	17,023	9,120	12,432	19,929	10,754	16,774
Lead, in Pigs.....	<i>Galls.</i>	...	23,502	93,820	287,620	309,790	198,140	150,260	197,630	231,690	321,820
Kerosene Oil.....	<i>Piculs.</i>	3,694	4,336	3,623	4,827	5,637	5,034	5,545	6,068	4,450	6,378
Seaweed, Long and Cut.....	"	9,077	16,224	5,000	3,303	2,556	4,379	5,985	8,295	8,841	4,081
Sugar, Brown and White.....	"	2,284	2,962	2,945	3,023	3,246	4,260	5,385
TRANSIT PASSES ISSUED.....	<i>No.</i>	2,284	2,962	2,945	3,023	3,246	4,260	5,385

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Grey Shirtings.....	Pieces	170,692	113,417	78,975	96,103	123,831	134,748	129,050	110,788	77,005	84,699
White ".....	"	45,735	31,522	25,186	29,646	41,077	50,394	51,537	56,808	45,104	64,021
T-Cloths.....	"	35,972	23,374	11,560	13,638	23,040	22,923	21,162	25,440	14,257	13,084
Sheetings.....	"	28,068	19,509	16,935	15,993	36,520	34,855	37,802	53,010	21,419	36,290
Drills and Jeans.....	"	4,519	2,940	3,070	3,205	3,410	6,340	5,570	10,011	9,335	13,225
Chintzes, Turkey Reds, Dyed Brocades, etc.....	"	42,203	26,610	16,555	19,381	24,439	29,786	25,437	21,788	15,433	21,819
Velvets.....	"	1,973	1,449	1,376	1,746	1,728	1,900	1,680	1,666	1,798	2,018
Cotton Lastings and Italians.....	"	4,795	5,883	4,976	6,501	9,184	12,516	16,532	20,885	16,747	27,940
" Spanish Stripes and Cotton Flannel.....	"	2,224	3,287	2,549	1,262	2,965	5,222	4,752	5,886	5,200	8,791
" Yarn, English.....	Piculs	1,251	609	1,035	1,763	1,046	1,125	935	837	303	147
" " Indian.....	"	59,073	24,726	29,867	45,182	60,965	53,227	44,832	47,484	39,582	78,395
" " Japanese.....	"	2,589	1,200	10,422	32,082	49,662	36,288	14,696
Woollen Goods.....	Pieces	21,250	13,593	12,844	12,602	14,741	16,453	11,719	9,105	8,694	8,936
Lead, in Pigs.....	Piculs	10,755	12,018	9,410	13,613	10,780	11,172	5,685	8,980	9,187	10,339
Kerosene Oil.....	Galls.	599,550	1,946,480	1,253,422	1,073,960	1,639,070	2,226,580	2,497,727	2,279,040	1,953,900	2,592,280
Seaweed, Long and Cut.....	Piculs	4,989	3,342	4,011	2,872	3,135	2,635	4,787	23,943	34,846	48,040
Sugar, Brown and White.....	"	2,825	3,531	2,708	3,993	3,015	3,179	3,279	14,447	22,774	52,764
TRANSIT PASSES ISSUED.....	No.	8,107	7,231	6,523	7,388	10,612	14,742	19,384	26,922	28,875	41,572

As regards the tonnage of the port, it has greatly increased. In 1892 there were 16 regular steamers serving the port, with a tonnage of 17,721 tons, while at the close of the decade there are 24 steamers, representing a tonnage of 30,654 tons. The companies engaged in the carrying trade of Kiukiang and the aggregate tonnage of their steamers are as follows:—

	Tons.
JARDINE, MATHESON, & Co.	5,186
GEORGE MCBAIN	1,324
BUTTERFIELD & SWIRE	5,493
China Merchants Steam Navigation Company	5,854
GREAVES & Co.	2,669
MELCHERS & Co.	3,451
ARNHOLD, KARBURG, & Co.	2,290
Osaka Shosen Kaisha	4,387
TOTAL	30,654

In addition to the steamers above quoted, there are 13 steam-launches running to and from the Poyang Lake, representing a tonnage of 308.25 tons. Their business is confined to taking passengers and towing passenger-boats. In the summer these launches go as far as the capital, Nan-ch'ang-fu (南昌府); but in the winter, owing to the shallow water, they can only get as far as Wu-ch'eng-chên (吳城鎮), on the Poyang Lake, where the passengers tranship to light-draught junks.

(c.) REVENUE.—On reviewing the Revenue of the past decade, it will be seen that there is an increase of *Hk.Ta* 161,670 over the entire period, as compared with that of the last decade. This slight increase is in reality a decrease, for it must be borne in mind that for the first five years of the previous decade no Opium Likin was collected; had it been collected, our Revenue for the period under review would show a decline of over half a million taels.

The different sources which contributed to our Revenue during the past 10 years are shown in the following table:—

YEAR.	IMPORT (exclusive of Opium).	EXPORT (exclusive of Opium).	COAST TRADE (exclusive of Opium).	OPIMUM (Import, Export, and Coast Trade).	TONNAGE.	TRANSIT.	OPIMUM LIKIN.	TOTAL.
	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta m.c.c.</i>
1892.....	239.8.6.9	598,733.8.8.8	23,292.2.0.6	103,761.3.0.0	229.2.0.0	44,779.4.9.2	276,696.8.0.0	1,047,732.7.5.5
1893.....	398.1.9.6	604,823.3.0.3	27,293.6.6.1	98,028.0.0.0	452.0.0.0	34,344.9.4.9	261,408.0.0.0	1,026,748.1.0.9
1894.....	157.2.9.6	597,921.8.3.9	17,905.6.5.3	96,618.0.0.0	225.5.0.0	30,779.5.8.1	257,648.0.0.0	1,001,255.8.6.9
1895.....	327.6.9.0	711,273.4.0.8	7,795.1.0.4	86,496.0.0.0	533.5.0.0	39,397.1.0.6	230,656.0.0.0	1,076,478.8.0.8
1896.....	124.4.2.9	629,416.2.9.4	27,807.0.4.5	79,282.5.0.0	385.3.0.0	49,453.1.2.1	211,420.0.0.0	997,888.6.8.9
1897.....	69.0.5.5	561,600.2.3.1	29,615.4.1.7	74,513.8.8.8	1,364.6.0.0	55,989.1.4.3	198,698.4.0.0	921,850.7.3.4
1898.....	149.4.5.5	616,954.1.7.8	35,074.2.2.8	67,113.0.0.0	839.0.0.0	60,536.8.7.6	178,968.0.0.0	959,634.7.3.7
1899.....	4,990.6.5.1	643,574.9.5.6	5,011.2.6.3	77,636.6.0.0	1,319.3.0.0	71,078.0.4.2	206,641.6.0.0	1,010,252.4.1.2*
1900.....	6,090.9.3.3	564,538.5.5.8	5,679.2.7.5	66,687.0.0.0	1,040.8.0.0	58,313.3.0.6	177,832.0.0.0	880,181.8.7.2
1901.....	8,726.7.0.6	499,912.3.4.6	4,762.6.0.2	63,594.5.6.0	2,786.0.0.0	79,115.2.5.1	169,304.0.0.0	828,201.4.6.5

* Gross receipts, the deficit in the Yangtze Coast Trade Deposit Account, amounting to *Hk. Ta* 22,616.3.1.9, not having been deducted.

(d.) OPIUM TRADE.—*Foreign Opium*.—"The condition of the Opium trade shows an increasing demand for the Foreign drug," was the opening sentence of the compiler of the 1882-91 Report, when writing on this subject. Foreign Opium had then reached its zenith. From that time, with the exception of a spasmodic effort in 1899, the importation of the drug has steadily declined; and it would seem to be merely a question of time before it will entirely disappear from the pages of our Returns, its place being taken by the Native article, which the younger generation find just as suitable to their taste and a good deal cheaper. The following tables, showing the imports for the last two decades, speak far more eloquently of the decline of the Foreign Opium trade at this port than can any words:—

YEAR.	Malwa.	Patna.	Benares.	Persian.	TOTAL VALUE.
	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>
1882.....	1,597.47	7.20	...	57.64	857,890
1883.....	1,574	42.03	645,526
1884.....	1,541.62	4.80	0.18	1	680,814
1885.....	1,860.52	9.60	882,516
1886.....	2,467.02	16.80	...	9	1,226,623
1887.....	3,003.54	13.20	1,475,075
1888.....	3,057	18	...	2	1,592,355
1889.....	3,145.50	27.60	1,717,440
1890.....	3,304	21.60	1,725,405
1891.....	3,597.56	16.80	6	1	1,839,769
TOTAL.....	25,148.23	135.60	6.18	112.67	12,643,413

YEAR.	Malwa.	Patna.	Benares.	Persian.	TOTAL VALUE.
	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Piculs.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>
1892.....	3,436	20.40	1.20	3	1,786,209
1893.....	3,246	21.60	1,745,432
1894.....	3,199	21.60	1,847,300
1895.....	2,871	13.20	...	1	1,803,096
1896.....	2,630	12	...	1	1,750,736
1897.....	2,463.50	19.20	1.20	...	1,668,355
1898.....	2,215.50	21.60	1,524,438
1899.....	2,565.22	16.18	...	1	1,718,096
1900.....	2,214.50	8.40	1,588,699
1901.....	2,105.50	10.80	1,488,477
TOTAL.....	26,946.22	164.98	2.40	6	16,920,838

Native Opium.—With regard to Native Opium, it is hard to obtain any reliable statistics. None appears to be grown in the province, the chief kind used coming from Szechwan, which reaches the province, it is said, through three places, Kiukiang, Jui-ch'ang-hsien (瑞昌縣), and P'ing-hsiang-hsien (萍鄉縣). The annual revenue collected by the Kiukiang Opium Office (九江土藥局) is put down at *K'u-p'ing* Tls 24,000. The Duty on the drug varies with its destination. If for consumption in the Kiukiang prefecture, which includes Jui-ch'ang-hsien (the Duty collected there being reported to and included in the Kiukiang revenue), it pays a Duty of *K'u-p'ing* Tls 6 per picul (75 catties); if passing through the prefecture in transit to the interior, it merely pays a Duty of *K'u-p'ing* Tls 3 per picul. The Kiukiang prefecture is said to consume 1,000 piculs, while another 1,000 piculs is said to pass through on its way to Anhwei. We have thus disposed of Tls 9,000 of the revenue collected, Tls 15,000 remaining to be accounted for. This latter sum, divided by three (Tls 3 being the Duty collected on Opium in transit), would be equivalent to the Duty on 5,000 piculs passing through into the interior. Besides the above amounts, 2,000 piculs are said to come in through P'ing-hsiang-hsien, which would bring the total Szechwan Opium consumed in Kiangsi to 8,000 piculs. Probably the eastern portion of the province consumes a certain amount of Fuhkien Opium, while in the south both Kwangtung and Yunnan Opium would find a market; but I very much doubt if, all kinds of Native Opium included, more than 10,000 piculs are consumed in the province. This account differs widely from that written in the previous Decennial Report; but, if information is hard to obtain now, when the consumption of the Native drug is by no means small, it must have been nearly impossible 10 years ago, when it was practically unknown here.

Prices of Opium.—The price of Foreign Opium has gone up considerably during the last 10 years, the fall in exchange being probably the chief cause for the rise. The market value of the Foreign drug, Duty and Likin paid, in 1901, as compared with the price obtained in 1891, is shown by the following statement:—

1891.		Per Picul.	
Malwa, three years old	<i>Kiukiang</i> Tls 495		
" two years old	" 485		
" new	" 470		

1901.

Per Picul.	
Malwa, three years old	<i>Kiukiang</i> Tls 789
" two years old	" 785
" new	" 782

Patna, Benares, and Persian are so little used in Kiukiang that it is impossible to obtain quotations.

The price of Native Opium in 1901 was:—

Per 75 Catties.	
Szechwan Opium, old	<i>Kiukiang</i> Tls 248
" " new	" 238
Yunnan Opium, old	" 283
" " new	" 273

(e.) STATE OF THE MONEY MARKET.—To say that, "From a Foreign standpoint, Kiukiang has no money market of its own" (*vide* Report for 1882-91), is misleading. Kiukiang is, of course, not a centre of trade, but merely an outlet—and a very inconvenient one at that—of the provincial centres of trade; yet the fact that it is a port of shipment and a distributing centre with Foreign and Native firms deeply interested in the business of the province, and that it also possesses five large banking establishments who have dealings with many provinces, is a sufficient warrant, I should say, that Kiukiang does possess a money market, though, perhaps, not a very big one. In the issue of remittances for purchase of commodities in other provinces the rates are controlled by the money markets of the centres concerned, and it is chiefly these large remittances, or the cashing of large remittances from other provinces, that causes the fluctuation of the local market both in cash and silver. In fact, the state of the Kiukiang money market resolves itself, as at other places, into one of demand and supply. No sterling transactions are done at this port. During the period under review the purchasing power of silver as regards cash has greatly declined.

The following table gives the average annual value of the Haikwan (關平) or Foreign Customs tael, the *K'u-p'ing* (庫平) or Treasury tael, and the *Ts'ao-p'ing* (漕平) or Kiukiang tael:—

—	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	<i>Cash.</i>	<i>Cash.</i>	<i>Cash.</i>	<i>Cash.</i>	<i>Cash.</i>	<i>Cash.</i>	<i>Cash.</i>	<i>Cash.</i>	<i>Cash.</i>	<i>Cash.</i>
Haikwan tael.....	1,660	1,628	1,595	1,524	1,399	1,320	1,354	1,409	1,387	1,367
<i>K'u-p'ing</i> ".....	1,647	1,616	1,583	1,513	1,388	1,310	1,344	1,399	1,377	1,357
<i>Ts'ao-p'ing</i> ".....	1,590	1,560	1,528	1,460	1,340	1,264	1,297	1,350	1,329	1,310

It may be of interest to some to say a few words with regard to the silver in use at the port and the copper cash in circulation.

Of sycee in use at Kiukiang, there are six different kinds, varying in standard of purity. Their names are—

Chin-mien (鏡面) issued by the Provincial Treasury. This silver has four seals, and weighs from 6 to 10 taels (ounces); it is about the purest silver in the market, and its touch is said to be 99.

Chin-mien (鏡面) stamped with two seals. In general use in the province; its weight is the same as that issued by the Provincial Treasury, but it has no fixed touch.

Yuan-pao (元寶). Weight about 50 taels; no fixed touch.

Ping-hsiang-yin (兵餉銀). *Yuan-pao* of the 98.80 touch broken up; this sycee is used for the soldiers pay, and through them comes into general circulation.

Kuan-liao (關料). Made by the Native Customs from broken sycee received in the payment of Dues and Duties; weight, about 10 taels; its touch is supposed to be 99.

Ch'uan-pei-ting (川北錠). From Szechwan; its touch is said to be 99, and weight from 6 to 10 taels; it is the least used sycee in Kiukiang.

Chin-sha-ting (荆沙錠). From Chin-chou-fu, in Hupeh; no fixed touch; weighs from 4 to 5 taels.

There is also an Assay Office at Kiukiang. It was started in the reign of the Emperor T'UNG CHIH, by the officials and gentry, for the purpose of fixing the touch of sycee brought from other provinces and not known to merchants in Kiukiang, as well as for settling disputes regarding the standard of purity of the silver in constant use. The sum charged by the Assay Office for fixing the touch is 30 cash for 50 taels. The touch of silver, once fixed by this office, is accepted by all merchants in Kiukiang. The Assay Office pays up for all silver wrongly assayed by it—which, however, seldom happens.

There are seven kinds of cash in circulation in this port, known as *tu-ch'ien* (大錢), *chung-t'eng-ch'ien* (中等錢), *ta-sha* (大砂), *chung-sha* (中砂), *hsiao-sha* (小砂), *hung-ch'ien* (紅錢), and *kuang-p'ien* (光片). Of these seven kinds, only the first two are officially recognised, the other five kinds being spurious and only used for fraudulent purposes, i.e., for mixing with good cash in the hopes of its being undetected. It is a curious fact, however, that although these spurious cash, unmixed with good cash, cannot be used as a purchasing medium for commodities, they have a certain value as regards the valid cash, and the cash shops deal freely in these illicit coins, though it is an offence punishable with no light penalty, but, of course, not so heavy as that meted out for coining the article, which in some instances is punishable with death.

Of the strings of cash in use at Kiukiang, there are two kinds—the “Likin” strings, and what may be termed the “business” strings. The “Likin” strings contain exactly 1,000 cash,

and are all of the kind known as *ta-ch'ien*. Although the “Likin” strings contain only 1,000 cash, from 1,014 to 1,030 “business” cash have to be paid for them at the cash shops, as the “business” cash, as will be directly explained, contain a certain amount of *chung-t'eng-ch'ien* and spurious cash. The weight of a “Likin” string varies from 6 to 6½ catties.

A string of “business” cash, known as a *tiao* (吊), which by rights should contain 1,000 cash, has only 974, and this is in most instances reduced to 970, the cash shop “squeezing” 4 cash. This latter amount is, however, refundable, if the purchaser chooses to count the string, which, being a tedious task, is seldom done. In these strings of cash there are, on an average, 60 *chung-t'eng-ch'ien*—somewhat inferior to the *ta-ch'ien*, and not accepted in the payment of Dues, Duties, or Likin, though still passable for ordinary use. The cash shops are, in most instances, too mindful of their interests to mix any spurious cash in these strings; but the purchaser mixes a few of the bad article with the good, thereby gaining a few cash for himself. It may seem strange that the shops accept this; but the sorting of a large number of cash is such tedious work that it is seldom done. Quarter days are the chief occasions when spurious cash are freely used, the shopman being, as a rule, only too glad to get his account paid. The weight of one of these strings is from 5 to 5½ catties.

It may also seem strange to some that the weight of a “Likin” string and a “business” string should vary by a catty, but the former are all thick, large cash, while the latter is composed of all sizes of cash, in many instances of a very thin description; so that it is no uncommon thing to see two of these strings lying beside each other at a cash shop, and the “Likin” string, though containing only 30 more cash, several inches longer.

(f.) The following two tables give the annual value of Imports at moment of landing (minus Import Duty and charges), and the value of Exports at moment of shipment (plus Export Duty and charges), for the last 10 years; it will be seen that, with the exception of the year 1901—the year following the Boxer outbreak,—Exports exceed Imports by a considerable amount:—

IMPORTS.

	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.
Net Foreign Imports, market value.....	4,755,579	4,073,202	4,296,233	4,733,820	5,835,876	6,563,311	6,852,783	7,924,471	7,020,101	8,396,856
„ Native „ „ „	866,683	835,178	615,764	465,535	809,104	1,221,676	2,020,129	1,584,362	1,317,285	1,407,703
Net Imports.....	5,622,262	4,908,380	4,911,997	5,199,355	6,644,980	7,784,987	8,872,912	9,508,833	8,337,386	9,804,559
Deduct Duties and Likin paid at Kiukiang.....	380,698	359,834	355,557	318,523	291,592	335,099	246,836	294,134	256,289	246,388
Net Imports, minus Duty.....	5,241,564	4,548,546	4,556,440	4,880,832	6,353,388	7,449,888	8,626,076	9,214,699	8,081,097	9,558,171
Deduct 7 per cent. for importers profit, etc.	366,909	318,398	318,950	341,658	444,737	521,492	603,825	645,029	565,677	669,071
Imports, value at moment of landing....	4,874,655	4,230,148	4,237,490	4,539,174	5,908,651	6,928,396	8,022,251	8,569,670	7,515,420	8,889,100

EXPORTS.

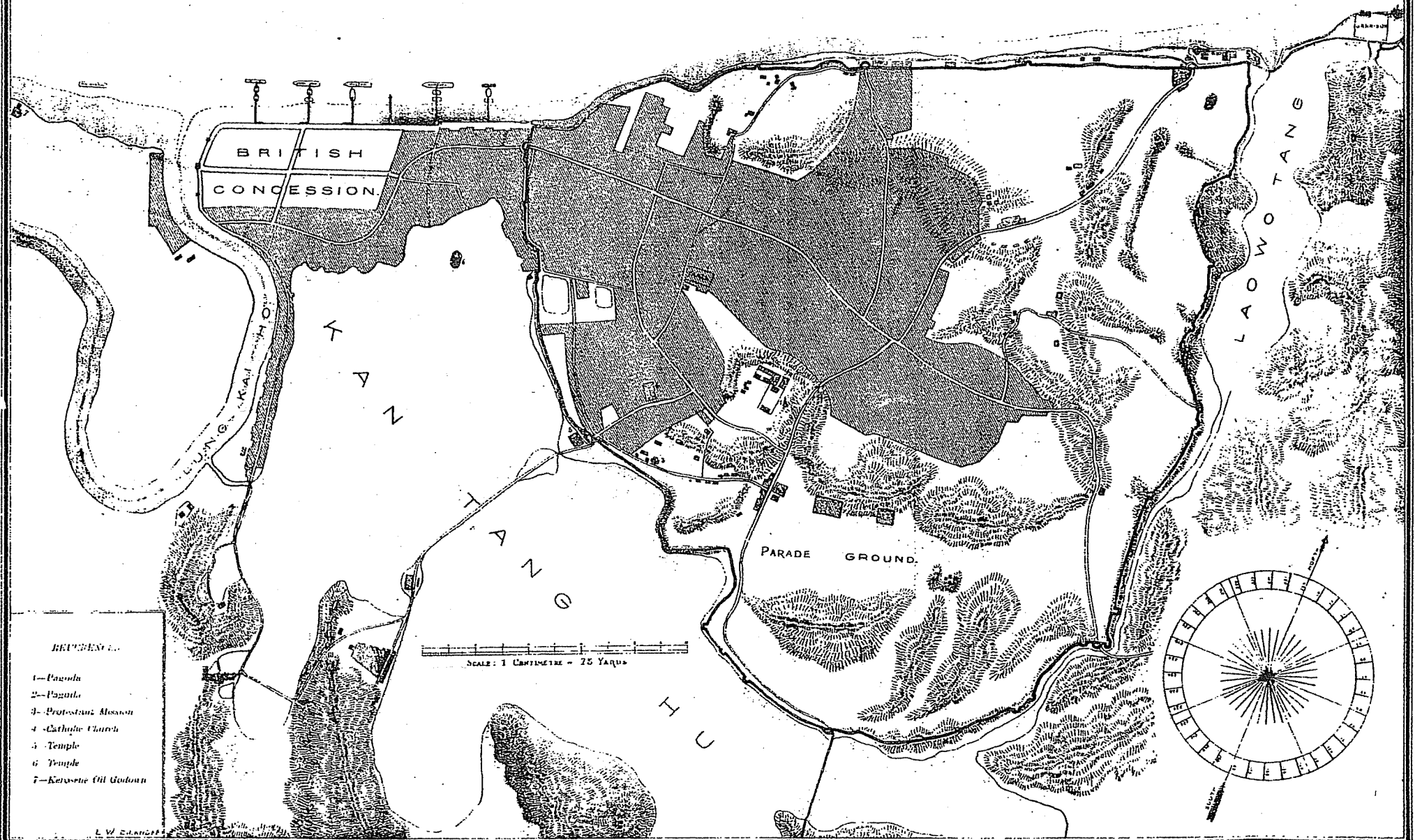
	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>
Original Exports, market value.....	6,216,557	6,429,035	6,705,479	9,032,999	7,605,123	7,080,576	8,627,640	9,054,108	8,019,161	7,058,652
Add Duty paid at Kiukiang	598,734	604,823	614,693	711,273	629,416	558,321	616,954	643,721	564,539	499,912
Exports, plus Duty.....	6,815,291	7,033,858	7,320,172	9,744,272	8,234,539	7,638,897	9,244,594	9,697,829	8,583,700	7,558,564
Add 8 per cent. on market value for exporters profit, etc.	545,223	562,708	536,438	722,640	608,410	566,446	690,211	724,329	641,533	564,692
Exports, value at moment of shipment	7,360,514	7,596,566	7,856,610	10,466,912	8,842,949	8,205,343	9,934,805	10,422,158	9,225,233	8,123,256
EXPORTS EXCEED IMPORTS BY	2,485,859	3,366,418	3,619,120	5,928,738	2,934,298	1,274,947	1,912,554	1,852,488	1,709,813	...
IMPORTS EXCEED EXPORTS BY	765,844

(g.) KIUKIANG PORT AND CITY.—Very few and only unimportant changes have taken place at this port, as regards the number, composition, character, and occupation of its Native population, during the past decade. The population of the city and suburb has been put down as 53,000; but I very much doubt if this figure is accurate. To begin with, only the western corner of the city is built on, the remainder being, with the exception of a few farm-houses scattered here and there, cultivated ground. According to Chinese assessment, which, if anything, is likely to err on the liberal side, the city contains 3,000 houses, and, from glimpses I have obtained from the city wall, I should say that this was a fair estimate: given that each house has eight occupants, which, I think, is a liberal allowance, the population would amount to 24,000. To this must be added the population of the suburb directly behind the Concession, which contains, I should say, another 1,500 houses: given the same number of occupants per house as the city, this would give another 12,000, bringing the total of city and suburb to 36,000—a figure which I consider far nearer the mark than 53,000.

The composition, character, and occupation of the inhabitants vary little from the ordinary Chinese town. Shops selling the usual miscellaneous assortment of Foreign goods, i.e., piece goods, lamps, perfumeries, soaps, gewgaws, and patent medicines, are to be found on all sides, intermingled with butchers, fishmongers, blacksmiths, silk-mercers, opium dens, etc., etc. In the suburb there are a good many porcelain shops, selling ware far more useful to the million than ornamental or likely to find favour in the eyes of connoisseurs of ceramic art; still, a few pleasing pieces are occasionally to be picked up which make nice souvenirs of the once-famed King-tê-chên industry—an industry which, it is to be hoped, may some day be revived. In the suburb are also to be found two silverware shops, which meet with no little patronage from Europeans, both resident and passing through; the general opinion is, however, that as regards finish it cannot compare with either that of Canton or Shanghai. These shops, too, keep only the most trivial description of ready-made ware in stock, with the result that many people who would otherwise be large purchasers go away empty-handed.

PLAN OF KIUKIANG.

YANG TZE KIANG →



In the Foreign community there have been several changes. The following statement shows the number of Foreign residents in the British Concession and Native city in 1901, as compared with those recorded for the last year of the previous decade:—

	1891.*	1901.†
British	56	75
French	18	16
American	11	6
Japanese	6	...
Danish	3	14
German	2	6
Austrian	2	...
Russian	2	5
Italian	1	1
Dutch	1
Portuguese	1
TOTAL	101	125

(h.) LOCAL IMPROVEMENTS.—The condition of the port has been improved in several ways. In 1895 the filling in of a stinking pond to the south of the Concession, known as P'én-p'u-chiang (澄浦港), was commenced by the Municipal Council, the expenses being defrayed out of the profits made by the Local Post Office (started in 1895, to supplement the funds of the Council, and abolished in 1897, on the opening of the Imperial Post Office) and, later, by a debenture loan of Tta 2,500. The Customs and the Lazarist Mission also aided in the undertaking, with the result that early in 1898 the work was completed. It had originally been intended to turn this reclaimed land into a Public Recreation Ground; but, so far, it has been found impracticable to carry this into effect, the ground, though having since been again raised to the extent of another 4 feet, being still too low—in fact, after heavy rains it is a mere swamp. It is to be hoped that the matter will soon be taken in hand again, as the present Recreation Ground is too small for the needs of the community.

New drains were laid down in the winter of 1900–01, and are an improvement on those formerly existing; still, it is a matter of regret that such an important undertaking was not more thoroughly carried out, too much of the money having been expended in depth, whereas the Concession has a sufficient drop towards the river to permit of surface drains being laid, instead of, as at present, some 4 feet below the level of the Concession.

As regards police, roads, and lighting, there is little to be said, except that they might all be greatly improved.

* Probably including wives and families.

† Including wives and families.

(4.) WATER APPROACHES.—Beyond the customary wiles of this ever-perplexing river, whereby a channel used this year is closed the next, to be but reopened the third, the water approaches to this port have undergone no appreciable change.

The following table gives the highest and lowest water of each year, at Kiukiang, during the past decade:—

YEAR.	LOWEST WATER.		HIGHEST WATER.	
	When occurring.	Registered by Gauge.	When occurring.	Registered by Gauge.
		Ft. in.		Ft. in.
1892.....	1st February.....	3 11	20th July.....	40 10
1893.....	19th ".....	4 2	30th August.....	40 8
1894.....	24th January.....	4 0	24th June.....	41 6
1895.....	5th March.....	2 7	27th August.....	36 5
1896.....	29th January.....	2 0	14th October.....	41 5
1897.....	2nd February.....	7 5	19th August.....	42 4
1898.....	31st December.....	5 4	7th October.....	36 8
1899.....	13th February.....	2 3	5th ".....	37 8
1900.....	31st December.....	2 0	31st July.....	30 0
1901.....	12th and 13th March....	0 7	16th ".....	45 0

(j.) LIGHTS.—In aids to navigation, the following alterations have been made during the period under review:—

- 1893.—Dove Point Light discontinued.
Two-fathom Creek Light established.
- 1894.—Kiukiang Rocks Light-boat established.
- 1900.—Spencer Rock Light-boat discontinued.
- 1901.—Two-fathom Creek Light-boat established.
Buckminster Light established.
Fitzroy Island Light-boat established.
Christmas Island Cut-off Light-boat established.
Tungliu Island Light established.
" Reach Light-boat established.
Olipphant Spit Light-boat established.

(k.) UNHAPPY OCCURRENCES.—In the last Decennial Report, under this heading, there was, fortunately, little to record, and up to 1898 it seemed likely that even a more peaceful period would be passed through; subsequent events, however, proved the contrary. Luckily, beyond a severe flood accompanied with great discomfort, the port escaped the rioting and incendiarism through which the rest of the province passed.

The following *résumé* of the troubles in the interior of Kiangsi has been compiled from notes kindly supplied to me by H.B.M.'s Consul and the Protestant and Catholic missionaries.

The ill-feeling towards Foreigners in general, which had been smouldering some little while before the close of the decade, broke into flame in July 1899, when one of the Catholic

chapels at Ying-t'an (鷹潭), in the Kuang-hsin prefecture, was destroyed, and one of the fathers taken prisoner by the mob and brutally beaten; and though comparative quiet reigned after this affair, it would seem, on reviewing past events, that it was the herald of those far graver and fearsome times which began in June 1900.

It was in September 1898 that His Excellency SUNG SHOU (孫壽) was appointed Governor of Kiangsi, and, with his appointment, the rumour immediately spread (and this was especially the case at Nan-ch'ang-fu) that SUNG, who was a relation by marriage of Prince TUAN (端王), was sent for the purpose of driving the Foreigners out of Kiangsi, destroying every vestige of their religion, and generally doing away with everything that related to the Occident.

During the year preceding the Boxer outbreak the adherents of TUAN organised meetings at the chief centres, where instruction in drill was given, and lists of all Foreigners and their residences prepared, as well as a general list of all Native Christians, their relations and friends. The recruits enlisted at these meetings were, at a given signal, to act at the same time throughout the province for the extermination of Foreigners; but, as was subsequently seen, events moved too fast for them, and the explosion took place before all was in readiness, and, so far as the annihilation of Europeans was concerned, ended in complete failure, though their establishments and converts suffered severely.

In 1900, at the commencement of the Boxer disturbance, a band of armed men went to King-tê-chên, where the Catholic premises were at once destroyed. From here they proceeded to Jao-chou-fu, where the orphanage in charge of the Sisters of St. Vincent de Paul was burnt, as well as the Catholic premises and the China Inland Mission buildings. The sisters had, luckily, left for Kiukiang the previous day; but one of the fathers, Père DAUVERCHIN, was attacked, while trying to get on board his boat, and severely wounded in the head by a stone. He, however, succeeded in escaping. From Jao-chou (饒州), the trouble gradually extended to the Kuang-hsin (廣信), Fu-chou (撫州), Chien-ch'ang (建昌), Chi-an (吉安), and Kan-chou (贛州) prefectures. Churches, orphanages, schools, and private houses were looted and burnt down; converts were heavily fined and cruelly beaten, their houses looted and burnt, and their cattle stolen. The Catholics state that in their northern diocese one church was burnt, 15 chapels destroyed, and 27 converts brutally murdered; in the eastern and southern dioceses all churches, chapels, schools, private houses, etc., were razed to the ground—the establishments at Fu-chou (撫州) and Wan-an (萬安) excepted—and 25 converts were put to death. Besides the above, numbers were unmercifully flogged and tortured, and it is estimated that some 2,000 families were rendered destitute by having their houses pillaged and burnt.

The Methodist Episcopal Mission lost all their buildings at Chien-ch'ang-fu (建昌府) and Li-chia-tu (李家渡); but, so far as is known, no converts were killed.

The China Inland Mission had two chapels burnt—one at Jao-chou (饒州), and another at Fêng-kaug-hsü (鳳岡墟), in the Kan-chou (贛州) prefecture. It appears that no converts were put to death.

Since the suppression of the Boxer rebellion affairs have quieted down. Indemnities have been paid for the damage done, and before long mission work will be in full swing again.

The severe flood which visited the port during July and August 1901 will long be remembered. On the 16th June of that year heavy rains set in all over the province. The river, which was rising at the time, rose still more rapidly, the swollen waters rushing out of the Poyang Lake at Hu-k'ou (湖口) forming a dam which effectually prevented the inflow of the Yangtze waters. On the 16th July the water-mark registered 45 feet above zero—3 inches above the disastrous floods of 1869,—and then slowly receded. During the high stage of the flood the whole of the Concession and the greater part of the Native city and suburbs were under water, many of the lower rooms of our houses being flooded. Needless to say, the discomfort was very trying, the only means of locomotion being either by boat or along slippery planks. But the sufferings of the community were nothing, as compared with some parts of the province. At Ta-ku-t'ang, some 7 miles from the entrance to the Poyang Lake, corpses of man and beast were daily washed up, while the amount of *debris* floating about showed what terrible havoc had been wrought all round the lake. The country to the north of the river suffered, perhaps, worst of all. After the embankment at Erh-tao-k'ou (二套口) had been swept away, the flood spread rapidly, carrying everything before it in its dread career, till from the Lu-shan range the country so far as the eye could reach looked like a vast sea. To add to the misery of the people, famine—and that dread scourge, famine fever, which almost invariably accompanies it—followed, and probably accounted for more lives than the flood itself. How many people succumbed altogether, through flood, famine, and sickness, will never be known, but the figures must be very high.

To help the sufferers, large sums were subscribed all over China, and other countries also contributed to the work of relief. The British Consul at Kiukiang received \$8,000, mainly collected in Shanghai; but to know how best to distribute this money, so that the most deserving of charity should receive it, was a task of no little difficulty. Various schemes were suggested—such as road-making and repairs to embankments,—but had in the end to be abandoned, partly on account of the impossibility of obtaining Foreign supervision for the work to be done, and partly on account of the objections raised by the Native authorities, who were averse to the idea of bringing hordes of starving people from one district to work in another where they might create trouble. In the end, chiefly through the aid of the missionaries, relief in the form of rice—and, in very destitute cases, rice and money—was distributed. In this connexion, it is a matter of regret that some of the officials deputed to help in the relief work showed such little zeal in aiding Foreign charity. In one instance, on the arrival of a cargo-boat full of rice, at a place not far from Kiukiang, the delegates were found all ready waiting with the list of names of those requiring relief. It was, however, luckily ascertained in time that the names were bogus, the deputies merely wishing to enrich themselves at the expense of the famine-stricken people. Many instances like this might doubtless be cited; the pity is that few of these “sharks” are ever brought to book. Many well-to-do Chinese also subscribed to the work of relief.

The giving of relief was not always an easy matter, for hundreds of beggars, hearing of the rice to be distributed locally, thronged the Concession, and the giving away of relief tickets was the immediate signal for crowds of filthy and, in many cases, loathsome beings to hustle one and attempt to tear the tickets from one's hands. These were, in all cases, the beggar

class, and not the poor through the flood, who behaved in a very orderly manner, and who, in consequence, in many instances, did not obtain relief.

The great pinch of the famine will come next year, when the planting of the young paddy begins. Few of those at present living on charity have the wherewithal to buy buffaloes, and implements to till the land with, these having been disposed of to meet the pressing needs of famine. Some of the officials, it is said, bought up many of the cattle, with the intention of letting the owners have them back at the same price, not charging for their keep in the meantime.

(L.) NOTEWORTHY EVENTS.—In April 1896 H.R.H. Admiral Prince HENRY of Prussia visited the port. Nothing special was done on the occasion. The Prince saw the silverware and porcelain shops, but, it is said, was not much impressed with what he saw. With the exception of this visit, there is nothing else worthy of note under this heading.

(M.) PEKING DEGREES.—During the period under review none of the much-prized titles of *chuang-yuan* (狀元), *pang-yen* (榜眼), or *tan-hua* (探花) fell to Kiangai. 54 of her scholars, however, obtained the *chin-shih* (進士) degree.

(N.) LITERARY MOVEMENTS.—There has been no literary movement in the province during the last 10 years.

In the previous Decennial Report the “White Deer Grotto”—Pai-lu-t'ung (白鹿洞)—was put down as the largest library in the province. This statement is a bit misleading, for it contains no books, and is, in fact, merely a secluded spot in the Lu-shan range, where scholars can reside free of charge, as far as residence is concerned, though for the necessities of life and study the student has to look out for himself. The grotto first came into notoriety in the T'an dynasty, when two brothers, Li P'u (李潛) and Li Shê (李涉), tired of the pomps and vanities of the world, selected this quiet retreat to spend the remainder of their lives. With them they took a white deer, from which the grotto took its name. Later, in the Sung dynasty, CHU HSI (朱熹), the great commentator of CONFUCIUS, resided here, and it is chiefly through his writings and sayings that the place became famous. After he left the *literati* founded a sort of college at this place in his honour. The college is endowed to a certain extent, scholars who obtain the title of *kao-ts'ai-shêng* (高材生) in the examination for the *hsiu-ts'ai* (秀才) degree being, on the recommendation of the Provincial Examiner, entitled to a sum of *Ta* 4 a month, if they intend to study at the Pai-lu-t'ung. The number who can hold the title of *kao-ts'ai-shêng* at the same time is limited to 20, vacancies only occurring by death, withdrawal from the college, or failure without good reason to turn up at the bimonthly examinations, held alternately by the Prefect of Nan-k'ang-fu (in which prefecture the grotto is situated) and by the Director of Studies living at the college. The latter must be a Hanlin or *chin-shih*, and is appointed by the Prefect.

Of the three libraries in the capital (Nan-ch'ang-fu) mentioned in the previous Report, only one, the Yu-chang Shu-yüan (豫章書院), can really be classed as a library, the other two—Ching-hsun Shu-yüan (經訓書院) and the Yu-chiao Shu-yüan (友教書院)—being merely places erected for the convenience of scholars who care to study there.

No mention was made in the Report for 1882-91 of the Lien-ch'i Shu-yüan (蓮溪書院), at Kiukiang. This college, which was formerly situated at the Lien-hua-t'ung (蓮花洞), at the foot of the Lu-shan range, was, after being destroyed by the Taipings, rebuilt at Kiukiang

by the officials and gentry. No books are to be found in this institution, it being merely a place of study for the scholars of the Kiukiang prefecture, and therefore differs from that at Pai-lu-tung, which is open to all the province. Three examinations are supposed to be held here every month; but it is said that the essays are written at home, on paper procured from the college. Small monetary rewards are given to successful candidates in these examinations. The rewards come out of the endowment of the college, which possesses a certain amount of farm land and a number of shops. The Director of Studies is never of lower rank than a metropolitan graduate.

(c.) PROVINCIAL DEGREES.—The number of *hsiu-ts'ai* allowed to the province is 2,116, at every examination, of which there are two in three years; of *chü-jên*, 104, at the triennial examination held at the provincial capital. During the decade under review there were six examinations for the *hsiu-ts'ai* or B.A. degree, making a total of 12,696 men. On account of the troubles, only two examinations were held for the M.A. or *chü-jên* degree, so there were only 208 men for the 10 years.

An error was committed in the previous Decennial Report, in saying that there were "21,220 *hsiu-ts'ai*, the graduates of 10 yearly examinations," the examinations occurring, as stated above, only twice in three years.

As regards the population of the province, the question is, and always will be, a vexed one, so long as the present primitive method of obtaining the census remains in force. There are many authorities, with many theories, on this subject, and it would be presumption, with the very primitive data procurable, to pick out one authority in preference to another; but to add another theory to those already existing is, perhaps, pardonable.

The province of Kiangsi is said to have an area of 72,000 square miles, about half of which is mountainous and sparsely inhabited. The most populous region lies along the valley of the Kan River and its tributaries, which form an outlet for nine out of the 13 prefectures and one independent city into which Kiangsi is divided. What the population of each of the prefectures amounts to, I have been unable to ascertain, no records being obtainable in Kiukiang. I was, therefore, obliged to think of some other way; and it struck me that salt, being an article of daily consumption in every household, it might be possible to deduce some idea of the population from it, provided that the salt statistics could be procured. These I was fortunate enough to obtain through the aid of my Writer, CHIN PAO-MING (金寶銘), and I have reason to believe that they are fairly accurate. Kiangsi does not produce any salt, it being imported chiefly from Kiangsu, from the districts known as Huai-nan (淮南) and Huai-pei (淮北). These districts supply nine prefectures of the province, known collectively as Hsi-an. The other four *fu* and one *chow* obtain their salt from Chehkiang, Fukien, and Kwangtung. For Hsi-an the annual amount officially allowed is 105,000 *yin*, which is equal to 63,000,000 catties; but to this must be added the smuggled salt, which is said to be three-tenths of the legitimate amount. For the other four prefectures and one independent city, I have been obliged to average out the salt consumed on the basis of that used in Hsi-an, as no figures were obtainable. The consumption of salt per head is estimated by the Chinese to be between 4 and 5 mace a day, or, say, roughly, 10 catties per annum. We thus have the following figures:—

KIUKIANG.

	Catties.
Hsi-an legitimate salt	63,000,000
" smuggled salt	18,900,000
Salt used in remaining four <i>fu</i> and one <i>chow</i>	35,000,000
Smuggled salt used in remaining four <i>fu</i> and one <i>chow</i>	10,500,000
TOTAL	Catties 127,400,000

If this total be divided by 10 (the average consumption of salt per head per annum being 10 catties), we get a total population of about 12½ millions, which I am inclined to believe is a very fair estimate for the province of Kiangsi. However, to show the diversity of opinion which exists on this subject, the figures of the following authorities may not be out of place:—

WILLIAMS ("The Middle Kingdom")	23,000,000
COLQUHOUN ("China in Transformation")	26,000,000
China Inland Mission ("List of Missionaries and their Stations")	24,534,118
"Statesman's Year Book, 1883"	23,046,999
Lord MACARTNEY, 1792	19,000,000
Kiukiang Decennial Report, 1882-91	9,510,000

The per-centage of persons who cannot read or write is put down at 60 per cent. A few females receive some education in the better-class families, but the number—outside of missions—is so small as to be not worthy of note.

(p.) TOPOGRAPHY OF THE PROVINCE.—This was fully gone into in the Report for 1882-91.

A meteorological table for the past decade is given hereunder:—

MONTHLY AVERAGES, 1892-1901.

MONTH.	THERMOMETER.		BAROMETER.		RAINFALL.		RISE AND FALL OF WATER.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	No. of Hours.	Quantity.	Highest.	Lowest.
	° F.	° F.	Inches.	Inches.		Inches.	Ft. in.	Ft. in.
January	55	31	30.735	30.023	58	2.24	8 4	4 0
February	58	31	30.604	29.718	53	3.16	9 7	4 1
March	69	45	30.534	29.810	83	4.97	15 6	7 6
April	80	58	30.368	29.726	85	6.30	23 7	13 1
May	86	58	30.224	29.701	86	5.10	30 1	22 0
June	90	63	30.016	29.633	70	8.32	35 5	27 4
July	95	75	29.960	29.578	42	6.11	37 1	31 4
August	95	74	30.021	29.567	26	3.37	37 3	33 3
September	87	65	30.233	29.454	46	3.98	35 6	32 2
October	78	54	30.453	29.428	43	3.10	34 5	29 0
November	70	43	30.605	29.956	31	1.55	29 2	15 7
December	59	33	30.695	30.047	26	1.22	17 3	6 4

(g.) NATIVE SHIPPING.—Between 20,000 and 30,000 junks visit the port during the year. They come from Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsu, Anhwei, and the interior of Kiangsi, and carry every description of goods produced in these provinces. Among the chief products may be mentioned: coal, iron, ironware, earthenware, gypsum, oil of all kinds, matting, manure-cake, white and yellow wax, oiled paper, umbrellas, bambooware, tin, and coir palms, from Hunan; medicines, hemp, Native cloth, persimmons, wine, cotton, and coir palms, from Hupeh; paper, grasscloth, tobacco, indigo, chinaware, tea, oil of all kinds, Native cloth, medicines, wood, hemp, and grain, from Kiangsi; tea, Native opium, ink, ink slabs, brass, and alum, from Anhwei; rice, Native cloth, crape, silk piece goods, cotton, matting, tin, and combs, from Kiangsu.

All junks have to report at the Native Customs, known as the Ch'ang Kuan (常關), and pay Port Dues (船料), which take the place of Tonnage Dues at the Foreign Customs. Duty is supposed to be collected on four kinds of cargo, viz., salt, tea, bamboos, and wood; as a matter of fact, however, Duty is only collected on the last three items, the salt Duty being remitted periodically by the salt office at Nan-ch'ang-fu. Besides the payment of Dues and Duties, the junks are subjected to other charges, which, though not appearing in the Board of Revenue tariff, are officially allowed, the staff pay being so ridiculously small as to be wholly inadequate to meet their wants. These charges are—

Purchase of tally (籤), without which measurement is refused	Cash.
Measurement certificate	362
Registration fee	50
	24
TOTAL	Cash 436

The Port Dues on junks are levied according to their cubic measurement, the length being taken from the first moveable plank in the bow to the rudder-post, and the breadth and depth at mainmast. For the payment of these Dues, the junks are divided into two classes, large and small. The small class pay from $\text{T}a$ 0.20 to $\text{T}a$ 16.90, and the large class from $\text{T}a$ 27 to $\text{T}a$ 48.50, another tael being charged for the sampan towed behind. The difference in Dues between the largest of the small class and the smallest of the large class is so great that it will be easily seen how the over-measuring of an inch will place a small class junk at a great disadvantage. This system of over-measuring is frequently practised by the Customs employes, the junk-owner being generally too scared to report the matter, and even if plucky enough to report it, often being a further loser on some trumped-up charge. The sub-offices, too, whose duty it is to merely *visé* the passes, frequently exact small sums before allowing the junks to proceed.

The number of men forming the crew of a junk varies with its size, there being seldom more than 15 in the largest or less than three in the smallest. The crew of the smaller junks is not infrequently composed of the owner and his family.

The freight money generally represents the amount of interest on the capital invested, which, with a little trade on the owner and captain's account, contains the whole of the profits.

It is seldom that the poorer junk-owners and captains grow rich; but they make a comfortable living, and the labour in navigating their vessels is easy. There are few losses other than wrecks, which more frequently than not closes the career of the owner. There is no form of insurance against accidents.

The following table gives the 18 principal classes of junks visiting the port, the province they come from, their picul capacity, and the number of crew they carry; each class, however, has many different sizes, but, for brevity, the table merely gives the largest and smallest in each class:—

CLASS NAME	PROVINCE	APPROXIMATE PICUL CAPACITY.	NUMBER OF CREW.
Tiao-kou (鈞鈎).....	Hunan	3,000	15 to 18
Hsiao-po (小駁).....	"	1,000	11 " 14
Ch'en ch'uan (辰船).....	"	2,000	14 " 16
Pa-kan (巴干).....	"	700	7 " 12
P'a ch'uan (扒船).....	"	1,000	12 " 14
Hung ch'uan (紅船).....	"	700	6 " 9
Ya-shao (鴉稍).....	"	1,000	12 " 14
Pien-tzu (扁子).....	"	700	6 " 9
San-kuan-ts'ang (三官船).....	"	800	7 " 10
Hua-tzu (划子).....	"	400	4 " 7
Tsao-tzu (槽子).....	Hupei	3,000	17 " 20
Shan-pan (仙板).....	"	1,000	12 " 15
Tou ch'uan (斗船).....	"	800	7 " 10
Pai-sha-chou (白沙洲).....	"	300	3 " 6
Kan ch'uan (轆船).....	"	700	7 " 9
Lo-an (洛安).....	"	300	2 " 5
Fu ch'uan (撥船).....	"	500	4 " 7
Lo-t'an (羅薩).....	"	250	3 " 6
Pa-tou (巴斗).....	"	150	3 " 6
Tiao-tzu (刁子).....	"	50	1 " 4
	Kiangsu	2,000	14 " 16
	"	1,000	10 " 12
	"	2,000	14 " 16
	"	1,000	10 " 12
	"	650	7 " 9
	"	200	3 " 6
	"	400	5 " 8
	"	200	3 " 5
	Kiangsi	1,000	12 " 14
	"	500	6 " 9
	"	700	7 " 10
	"	250	4 " 6
	"	3,000	15 " 18
	"	1,000	11 " 14
	"	900	11 " 13
	"	350	4 " 6
	"	700	7 " 9
	"	200	3 " 5
	"	900	11 " 13
	"	400	5 " 8

(r.) BANKS.—There are five large banking establishments at this port, whose chief work is issuing and cashing remittances and keeping private accounts. They have dealings with most of the provinces. The interest charged for ordinary borrowing transactions is from $\frac{1}{10}$ to

1½ per cent. a month, overdrawn accounts being treated in a similar manner. On fixed deposits, interest is allowed at the rate of from ½ to ¾ per cent. a month; and on current account, like sums are given on the average daily balance. No fixed rule, however, seems to exist for interest charged or given, the customer making the best arrangement he can.

(s.) NATIVE POSTAL AGENCIES.—On the opening of the Imperial Post Office, in February 1897, the 16 then-existing Native postal agencies were registered, and thus undertook to transmit all outward mails through that institution, which, in return, sent all inland mails through them. These Native hongts formed part of a great postal system whose agencies were to be found in all parts of the province, and who, in their turn, were agents of sister establishments throughout the Empire. The tariff of these hongts, unlike that of the Imperial Post Office, provided for a payment on posting and a further sum on delivery; and the thrifty Chinese seemed to prefer that system to that of the whole postage being paid by the sender, dividing as it did the expenses between sender and receiver. In some instances, too, for the convenience of merchants and bankers, these hongts contracted to carry mails for an annual sum, which, in the absence of postage stamps, was obviously a great advantage.

There are, at present, 19 Native agencies at Kiukiang, 18 of which are registered at the Imperial Post Office. The business of the unregistered hong is almost entirely confined to inland work, and during the tea season it has special couriers running to I-ning-chou (義寧州), the dates of arrival being scheduled, as the letters and parcels are usually of an urgent nature. The following table gives the outward rates of these hongts:—

DESTINATION.	ORDINARY LETTERS AND SMALL PARCELS.	LETTERS ENCLOSING DOLLARS.	LETTERS ENCLOSING CHEQUES.
Shanghai.....	20 to 50 cash	10 to 12 cash per \$1	400 cash per 72 1,000
Chinkiang.....			
Nanking.....			
Wuhu.....			
Hankow.....			
Soochow.....	50 to 100 cash	10 to 20 cash per \$1	About 600 cash per 72 1,000
Ningpo.....			
Hangchow.....			
Wenchow.....			
Yochow.....			
Shasi.....	200 cash	20 to 40 cash per \$1	About 1,000 cash per 72 1,000
Ichang.....			
Chungking.....			
Kiao-chow.....			
Chefoo.....			
Tientsin.....			
Newchwang.....			
Peking.....			
Foochow.....			
Amoy.....			
Swatow.....			
Canton.....			
Samsui.....			
Wuchow.....			

Letters for Shanghai and the river ports may either be paid in advance or on delivery, according to the wish of the sender. From sea-ports from which they have to be sent inland, half

postage is paid in advance. If for other places than those mentioned in the table, they are sent to the nearest ports for transmission, but their delivery is uncertain.

(t.) KIUKIANG MARITIME CUSTOMS.—As regards this Department, the chief change in office procedure occurred in April 1898, when the Revised Yangtze Regulations came into force. Under these, the old method of simultaneous collection of Export and Coast Trade Duty was abolished, and only an Export Duty levied, as at the coast ports. The introduction of these Regulations has greatly facilitated the work of the office, by doing away with the necessity for the tea bonds, handed in as a guarantee of the payment of the Coast Trade Duty in the event of the tea not being re-exported within a year to a Foreign country, which time was later extended to three years—owing to the delays experienced by the firms in getting the proof of re-exportation back from the Chinese yaméns—and even then found insufficient. As matters stand at present, the period within which everything should have been settled up expired in April 1901; but many bonds have not yet been cancelled or payment enforced, as, during the Boxer trouble, quantities of Re-export Certificates were lost when the yaméns at Tientsin were burnt.

In the divisions of work, two noteworthy changes have taken place—the establishment of the Imperial Post Office, of which the Commissioner is *ex officio* Postmaster, and the handing over of the Native Customs to the Foreign. These two additions have necessarily increased the volume of work, and required a larger staff, which now numbers 183 members, divided as follows:—

In-door: 1 Commissioner, 4 Assistants, 7 Chinese Clerks, 2 Writers, and 8 Shupan.

Out-door: 1 Tidesurveyor, 1 Assistant Tidesurveyor, 1 Examiner, 5 Assistant Examiners, 8 Tidewaiters, 7 Weighers, 9 Watchers, and 52 others.

Lights: 40 Lightkeepers and 6 Sailors for light-tender.

Post Office: 2 Postal Officers, 6 Postal Clerks, and 11 Letter-carriers, Couriers, etc.

Likin Collectorate: 1 Deputy Commissioner, 1 Chinese Clerk, 1 Writer, 1 Shupan, and 8 Boatmen.

(u.) SPECIAL DEVELOPMENTS.—No special developments have taken place at Kiukiang during the last 10 years, either in military, naval, industrial, financial, or administrative matters.

(v.) MISSIONS.—*China Inland Mission*.—From accounts kindly supplied to me by a member of the mission, it appears that the work has made steady progress during the period under review. The staff of Foreign workers at present numbers 79, amongst whom are representatives from Australia, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Great Britain, New Zealand, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States. As converts have increased, it has become necessary to open schools for the education of the young. There are, at present, a number of day and a few boarding schools, with from 80 to 100 scholars. One medical man resides at Jao-chou-fu; but, owing to the Boxer rising, he has, so far, been unable to build his hospital. The total number of church members is about 800, and of inquirers there are nearly 2,500.

Lazarist Mission.—Much was written about this mission in the previous Decennial Report, but a few more remarks may not be out of place. The following account has been compiled from notes kindly supplied to me by Mgr. FERRANT, coadjutor of Kiangsi Septentrional.

The Catholic mission of the province of Kiangsi is entrusted to the care of the brotherhood of the mission founded by St. VINCENT DE PAUL and known as the Lazarists. The province comprises three "Vicariats Apostolique," known as Kiangsi Septentrional, Kiangsi Oriental, and Kiangsi Meridional.

The Bishops of Kiangsi Septentrional are Mgr. BRAY and Mgr. FERRANT, the former vicar apostolic, and the latter coadjutor and principal of the mission. There are, besides, 13 Foreign and five Chinese priests, 14 Sisters of Charity, 5,500 converts, and 3,000 inquirers. There are seven churches (amongst which is included the Kiukiang cathedral), some 30 chapels, and a great number of oratories. The Sisters of Charity have two establishments at Kiukiang—one on the British Concession, which includes the dispensary, old men's refuge, infant boys orphanage, boys school, and the school for inquirers; and one in the city, which includes an orphanage and school for girls, old women's refuge, and inquirers school.

Kiangsi Oriental has Mgr. VIC as Bishop, 15 Foreign and nine Chinese priests, seven Sisters of Charity, 14,000 converts, and about 6,000 inquirers. There are nine churches, 49 chapels, and numerous oratories.

Kiangsi Meridional has Mgr. COQSET as Bishop, 10 Foreign and five Chinese priests, 6,000 converts, and about 4,000 inquirers. There are 11 churches, 20 chapels, and several oratories.

In each diocese there are a large number of schools for boys and girls; the total number of pupils in the three departments exceeds 4,000. In the various dispensaries from 80,000 to 100,000 people are annually accorded free treatment. The principal Catholic centres are: for Kiangsi Septentrional, Kiukiang, Nan-ch'ang, and Jui-chou; for Kiangsi Oriental, Fu-chou, Jao-chou, and Chien-ch'ang; and for Kiangsi Meridional, Chi-an and Kan-chou.

The Methodist Episcopal Mission has stations at Kiukiang, Jui-ch'ang, Nan-ch'ang, Hsin-chien, Fêng-ch'êng, Jui-chou, Chin-hsien, Lin-chuan, Nan-ch'êng, and Nan-fêng. Of members, and members on trial, there are 2,254. This mission has 14 day-schools, with 103 scholars and nine teachers; and two high schools, with 121 scholars and 12 teachers.

The American Church Mission has recently started work in Kiukiang, under a Native priest, and is said to be making good progress.

The British and Foreign Bible Society is represented in this port and province by Mr. L. J. DAY.

Besides the above, there are some unconnected missionaries, mostly of the denomination of Plymouth Brethren, numbering some 52 men, women, and children.

(w.) GUILDS.—In the Report for 1882-91 there were said to be four *hui-kuan* at this port; there, however, appear to be eight in all, viz. :—

Hung-tu Hui-kuan (拱都會館), representing the prefecture of Nan-ch'ang, the capital of Kiangsi.

Yü-nan Kung-so (甯南公所), representing the Chien-ch'ang prefecture.

Hsin-an Hui-kuan (新安會館), representing the prefecture of Hui-chou (徽州), in Anhwei.

Chê-shao Hui-kuan (浙紹會館), representing the Shao-hsing (紹興) prefecture, in Chehkiang.

Chiang-ning Hui-kuan (江寧會館), representing the prefecture of Chiang-ning (江寧), in Kiangsu.

Kiangnan Tan-yang Hui-kuan (江南丹陽會館), representing the district of Tan-yang (丹陽), in Kiangsu.

Ling-nan Hui-kuan (嶺南會館), representing the province of Kwangtung.

Tien Hou Kung (天后宮), representing the province of Fuhkien.

Kiukiang does not appear to be represented in any province, though the province of Kiangsi is to a large extent, and people from Kiukiang would naturally have admittance to the Kiangsi *hui-kuan* in other provinces.

The *hui-kuan* at this port have no rules of membership; and the upkeep of the establishments is met by voluntary contributions and from any leased or farm property they possess.

(x.) CELEBRATED OFFICIALS.—No celebrated officials have either held office in or sprung from the province during the period under review.

(y.) LITERATURE.—During the decade no celebrated books have been produced.

(z.) FUTURE PROSPECTS.—Kiukiang, from its position, is never likely to show much improvement over its present state of prosperity—in fact, it is far more likely to deteriorate, as a port of importance, than otherwise. Hu-k'ou (蕪口), at the entrance to the Poyang Lake, is the true outlet and inlet of the province; and although its opening would probably be opposed by property-owners at Kiukiang, to whom it would mean serious loss, there are those whose interests are not so strongly centred in the port, and by whom it would be welcomed and supported.

PERCY R. WALSHAM,

Assistant-in-Charge.

CUSTOM HOUSE,

KIUKIANG, 31st December 1901.

APPEN.

APPENDIX

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF THE

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1892.		1893.		1894.		1895.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Beans and Peas.....	Piculs	4,166	4,281	9,612	11,364	3,577	4,628	25,023	34,001
China-root.....	"	3,165	34,210	3,734	32,046	3,289	27,957	3,587	30,283
China-ware, Fine.....	"	11,609	83,654	12,582	90,547	16,367	116,439	11,777	94,181
" Coarse.....	"	20,602	71,996	21,011	73,391	22,622	87,649	22,848	107,245
Cotton, Raw.....	"	"	"	785	5,791	2,402	12,250	411	4,689
" with Seed.....	"	"	"	429	1,176	161	444	"	"
Fans, Paper.....	Pieces	299,300	3,598	182,000	3,640	125,400	2,508	"	"
Feathers.....	Piculs	"	"	"	164	612	"	"	"
Grasscloth, Fine.....	"	1,145	57,510	1,213	60,660	1,220	61,021	1,893	104,023
" Coarse.....	"	6,352	206,825	6,057	193,847	6,218	197,928	7,087	195,787
Ground-nuts.....	"	3,372	4,258	1,087	1,305	2,677	3,271	1,323	1,948
Hemp.....	"	30,751	235,491	42,913	320,002	43,646	315,260	37,039	386,792
" Rope, Twine, and Thread.....	"	"	"	"	19	218	19	260	"
Hides, Cow.....	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
Indigo, Liquid.....	"	6,519	28,868	14,594	52,231	21,282	79,108	14,519	77,410
Lotus-nuts.....	"	489	4,885	920	7,710	504	4,117	786	9,438
Matches.....	Gross Pieces	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
Mata, Bamboo.....	Value	142,147	28,509	156,407	31,282	150,948	30,189	159,579	47,831
Medicines.....	"	"	3,029	"	2,491	"	2,683	"	2,432
Oil, Ground-nut, Wood, and Sesamum Seed.....	Piculs	"	"	"	"	126	578	139	644
" Vegetable Seed and Tea.....	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
Paper, 1st Quality.....	"	27,321	225,840	26,935	229,513	23,510	206,115	15,048	120,553
" 2nd.....	"	98,852	316,445	86,157	278,698	79,601	285,226	70,090	347,390
Rice.....	"	110,602	128,187	7,883	10,579	796	1,035	2,358	2,827
Seed, Melon.....	"	404	1,801	916	3,919	13	76	7,878	29,285
" Sesamum.....	"	657	1,707	"	"	407	979	5,917	29,200
" Vegetable.....	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
Skins, Assorted.....	Pieces	"	"	"	"	9,865	3,402	6,150	3,058
Tallow, Vegetable.....	Piculs	6,979	50,861	5,489	40,138	8,711	63,259	9,644	70,464
Tea, Black.....	"	136,942	3,272,480	139,903	3,339,972	137,356	3,526,678	178,200	5,281,367
" Green.....	"	37,447	848,217	43,173	1,036,432	41,586	1,081,297	53,424	1,432,227
" Dust.....	"	1,532	9,069	1,292	9,114	3,345	18,398	198	992
" Leaf.....	"	2,584	45,013	1,050	29,407	1,307	34,676	1,771	22,510
" Seed.....	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
" Stalk.....	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
" Log.....	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
" Brick, Black.....	"	34,833	243,834	29,030	209,016	21,775	163,311	25,915	233,237
" Green.....	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
" Tablet.....	"	4,474	46,977	4,909	58,911	5,749	94,237	6,547	112,509
" Tin, Compound.....	"	"	"	"	"	161	1,961	437	5,557
Tobacco, Prepared.....	"	1,971	29,574	2,136	32,028	2,642	38,546	3,079	44,040
" Leaf.....	"	51,206	195,321	66,364	235,513	61,486	213,593	44,905	179,318
" Stalk.....	"	3,603	5,413	2,488	4,268	1,781	2,754	2,037	3,058
Wheat.....	"	5,991	5,838	9,120	9,572	"	"	"	"

DICES.

No. 1.

PRINCIPAL EXPORTS, 1892-1901.

1896.		1897.		1898.		1899.		1900.		1901.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
12,816	Hk. 7h	19,224	Hk. 7h	69,280	Hk. 7h	179,758	Hk. 7h	288,427	Hk. 7h	52,035	Hk. 7h
3,681	19,224	2,981	23,547	2,728	19,955	4,286	39,921	2,739	34,084	4,258	61,538
15,525	232,869	16,722	270,684	18,203	327,662	18,493	326,865	9,947	188,993	10,068	211,552
39,790	154,001	32,552	174,416	30,443	182,664	35,074	210,440	18,080	108,534	15,355	105,682
125	1,877	712	9,965	186	2,690	2,642	34,273	3,722	51,606	81	1,053
220,600	2,642	153,000	2,754	"	"	400	1,720	"	"	123	677
"	"	299	2,447	690	5,393	58,100	598	18,550	371	60,000	1,200
2,037	71,299	1,958	70,501	1,662	58,894	1,713	62,515	2,072	116,070	2,186	141,040
9,485	170,728	9,890	178,015	6,825	122,751	7,014	126,261	9,119	227,975	7,260	218,195
650	584	5,615	8,984	15,444	30,242	17,159	37,500	7,215	13,156	4,973	8,021
46,645	37,3167	48,925	431,886	57,400	526,840	70,150	556,267	80,379	504,374	97,687	771,816
22	339	"	"	103	743	96	1,253	184	1,434	24	425
111	1,659	"	"	143	2,450	749	12,948	1,832	38,902	2,146	38,509
28,627	171,760	23,512	133,276	33,488	191,322	66,632	384,340	53,886	362,913	27,866	201,547
818	12,497	696	9,630	1,297	17,382	1,039	10,537	1,298	13,969	1,382	16,789
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
182,429	27,222	176,062	21,012	168,932	27,107	235,616	35,658	209,838	31,412	213,469	31,912
"	4,233	"	2,557	"	5,018	"	5,678	"	3,520	"	4,580
"	"	1,032	6,098	1,529	8,945	148	1,128	326	1,840	240	1,458
"	"	3,001	20,932	1,887	11,622	47	328	184	1,334	901	5,633
20,639	247,676	26,224	329,208	30,129	408,402	30,009	443,790	12,926	196,192	18,665	304,447
109,365	492,145	90,750	475,077	131,013	685,625	87,509	481,603	62,949	410,446	81,500	489,000
1,598	2,606	9,839	16,234	28,200	55,828	410	700	263	3,024	"	"
11,810	71,018	9,319	46,681	21,030	104,307	17,983	92,962	8,510	38,367	7,934	39,324
4,259	12,778	9,941	38,234	42,416	130,429	56,786	198,116	88,415	268,666	23,603	75,609
"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	917	1,854	5,858	9,372
35,877	7,932	15,641	3,760	37,100	7,959	49,818	7,791	63,089	11,806	81,067	18,935
4,594	33,113	8,887	56,268	7,099	49,646	10,749	84,166	6,997	56,131	10,453	79,889
141,928	3,389,667	117,394	2,289,166	121,983	2,654,071	131,145	3,215,016	123,211	2,673,530	102,491	3,049,292
38,793	1,119,341	38,734	1,451,712	40,300	1,479,210	49,901	1,455,848	35,997	1,099,160	28,173	1,162,557
187	1,121	112	558	300	1,500	1,686	8,433	2	8	43	249
2,207	22,075	661	3,968	635	3,808	1,524	8,545	4,713	24,623	3,114	18,652
"	"	175	855	117	588	181	907	154	792	"	"
"	"	29	74	"	"	"	"	6	18	"	"
41,194	329,554	32,839	295,553	33,831	304,475	43,352	390,170	51,067	507,859	28,924	312,613
6,058	72,696	2,449	34,282	3,632	55,448	1,130	17,974	1,008	16,030	2,018	40,225
203	2,468	151	1,937	307	3,970	489	6,601	1,542	22,589	1,925	29,042
2,755	55,108	3,336	70,286	3,588	66,120	4,395	77,606	3,665	58,640	4,418	73,488
59,360	437,497	76,895	497,766	126,678	917,351	70,385	358,721	82,489	323,463	107,733	339,170
3,448	5,123	3,591	5,340	3,697	9,018	3,155	7,844	1,345	3,295	3,178	6,941
"	"	"	"	394	763	16,722	23,352	14,031	18,985	926	1,420

APPENDIX

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF THE PRINCIPAL

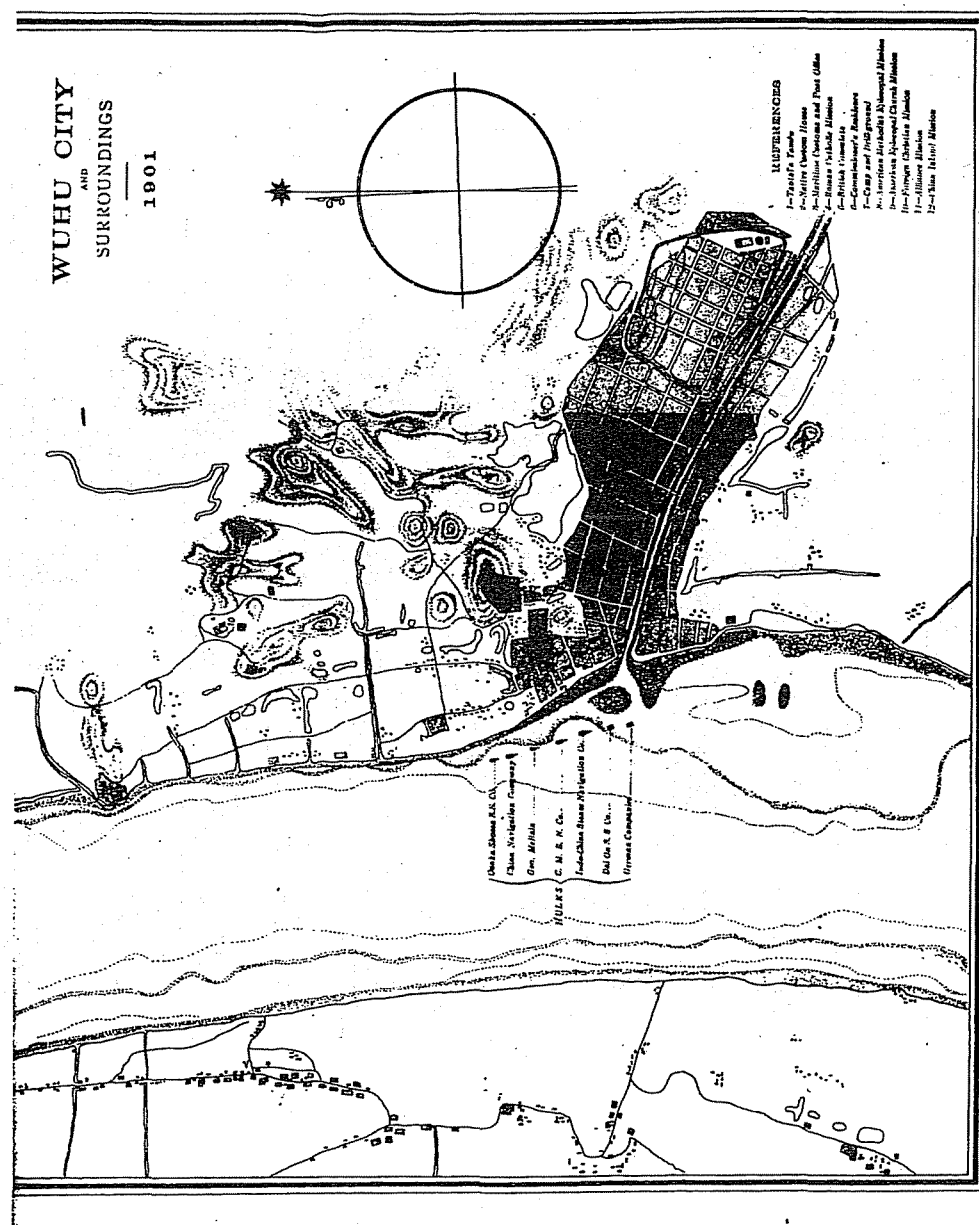
DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1892.		1893.		1894.		1895.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
CHINESE COTTON GOODS.*									
Shirtings, Grey.....	Pieces	300	588	164	290
Sheetings.....	"	220	400
Drills.....	"	540	1,080	495	1,089
Turkey Red Shirtings.....	"
Cotton Yarn.....	Piculs	2,310	41,580
SUNDRIES.									
Bags of all kinds.....	Pieces	3,850	49
Cassia Ligna, Buds, and Twigs.....	Piculs	407	1,268	390	1,103	333	1,336	378	2,058
Coal.....	Tons	136	681	201	1,005	167	835
Cotton, Raw.....	Piculs	12,882	95,800	1,684	12,633	2,801	26,104	1,292	12,919
" with Seed.....	"	1,816	9,078	664	3,210	...
Cuttle-fish.....	"	14,129	110,528	8,730	81,947	25,158	182,456	11,079	101,438
Dates, Black.....	"	1,028	5,747	1,221	7,286	1,232	5,017	842	3,529
" Red.....	"	1,016	3,574	748	2,432	806	2,286	872	2,774
Eggs, Preserved.....	Pieces
Fans, Palm-leaf.....	"
" Paper.....	"	159,929	2,360	124,519	2,342	121,056	2,421	109,235	2,209
" Silk and Fancy.....	"	10,277	600	11,416	586
Fish, Dried and Salt.....	Piculs	695	4,563	795	4,545	870	4,372	760	4,383
Flowers, Decorated.....	Pairs	45,218	1,333	25,201	756
Fungus.....	Piculs	124	2,950	143	1,931	95	1,463	197	4,191
Ginseng, Native.....	"	4	2,268	5	3,211	6	1,053	3	478
Grasscloth, Fine and Coarse.....	"	32	1,571	35	1,776	29	1,456	34	1,769
Lamps.....	Pieces	11,552	1,899	7,927	1,215	6,883	1,295	5,169	850
Lead, White.....	Piculs	294	2,071	291	2,037	262	1,935	225	1,736
" Yellow.....	"	636	4,617	156	1,124	184	1,383	303	2,771
Lichees, Dried.....	"	762	5,889	738	6,301	1,450	10,786	1,600	12,584
Lily Flowers, Dried.....	"	899	3,929	748	3,319	728	3,163	3,832	19,889
Lung-ngans, ".....	"	1,612	10,932	1,120	8,292	1,504	7,917	1,628	9,123
Matches.....	Gross	9,350	1,590	8,950	1,511
Mats, Straw.....	Pieces	10,114	3,266	9,214	2,763	14,588	3,196	21,314	3,341
Medicines.....	Value	...	13,055	...	8,427	...	9,721	...	7,728
Mulberry Trees.....	Pieces
Nankeens.....	Piculs	2,230	84,750	1,752	61,255	1,178	36,555	1,336	38,761
Oil, Ground-nut, Sesamum, and Wood.....	"	1,069	4,943
Opium, Native.....	"	7	1,801	16	4,429	16	4,638	10	3,082
Paper, 1st and 2nd Quality.....	"	363	3,861	533	4,724	519	4,492	272	2,115
Peel, Orange.....	"	325	3,778	161	1,934	390	3,169	271	1,733
" Pumelo.....	"	74	504	61	332	76	416
Rice.....	"
Samshu.....	"	1,277	3,468	1,582	4,047	1,622	3,923	1,439	4,302
Sea Blubber.....	"	625	1,875	635	1,866	404	1,183	479	1,431
Shoes and Boots.....	Pairs	10,485	4,194	7,591	3,022	6,735	3,291	8,344	4,082
Silk Piece Goods.....	Piculs	32	15,582	17	8,114	10	4,943	9	4,529
" Pongees, Shantung.....	"	15	4,669	7	2,080	6	2,055	7	2,239
Sugar, Brown.....	"	25,607	81,802	26,738	94,056	19,497	67,274	9,401	33,588
" White.....	"	50,021	301,124	70,293	420,202	23,235	135,804	11,404	55,570
" Candy.....	"	3,020	25,898	2,462	21,123	2,541	21,068	2,350	16,551
Tea, Black.....	"	24	580	16	384
" Chests.....	Pieces	8,274	4,473	7,642	4,242	10,262	4,187	14,554	8,944
Tobacco, Prepared.....	Piculs	502	8,028	552	8,622	694	10,418	952	14,280
Vermilion.....	"	24	2,001	21	1,807	12	984	17	1,422
Wax, White.....	"	4	182	71	5,330	72	5,812

* Steam Factory products.

No. 2.

NATIVE IMPORTS, 1892-1901.

1896.		1897.		1898.		1899.		1900.		1901.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Hk. Tn</i>		<i>Hk. Tn</i>		<i>Hk. Tn</i>		<i>Hk. Tn</i>		<i>Hk. Tn</i>		<i>Hk. Tn</i>
500	1,500	1,180	3,706	1,253	3,963	421	1,366	260	894	813	2,797
...	140	446	520	1,732	140	525	260	988
...	48	1,177
...	115	456
3,225	71,170	14,331	339,649	35,657	859,710	41,578	921,387	30,729	798,954	31,229	839,286
32,403	793	31,477	737	41,490	1,705	99,598	3,882	63,610	4,731	30,432	2,651
409	2,363	326	1,788	443	2,310	363	2,282	279	1,915	406	2,579
236	1,189	271	1,862	211	1,539	192	1,217	234	1,636	211	1,663
1,315	17,100	2,041	28,578	2,805	32,596	4,188	49,759	348	4,350	340	5,692
6,620	25,835	13,632	61,345	10,004	42,032	8,608	34,374	110	330
14,134	131,292	7,125	113,161	12,543	229,376	6,786	127,495	11,170	242,601	7,555	154,742
1,375	12,374	1,964	10,758	1,829	10,512	1,772	11,442	1,764	9,629	2,090	10,632
1,803	7,210	1,049	4,332	2,372	13,875	3,620	16,522	1,352	5,218	1,160	4,478
...	43,059	330	69,952	588	80,851	732	50,832	498
...	21,825	1,516	10,500	525
137,241	1,649	188,640	2,298	157,402	2,011	139,394	2,236	57,732	1,153	57,900	2,316
24,640	374	16,791	683	8,920	135	8,079	310
870	6,220	1,025	10,954	966	20,758	1,099	19,620	985	19,785	809	15,791
16,103	667	38,809	895	22,259	622	16,222	842	6,987	327	8,565	378
801	22,148	944	27,969	815	20,216	567	13,685	594	14,735	718	20,102
3	974	3	619	6	1,148	12	1,162	14	2,036
44	1,418	44	1,553	57	1,823	32	1,227	98	3,768	26	1,690
7,282	1,059	8,290	1,362	4,676	729	3,237	470
266	1,598	232	1,782	258	2,404	291	2,754	197	1,773	299	2,729
279	1,949	275	2,218	317	3,243	315	3,107	77	905	76	912
1,509	8,675	880	8,649	1,974	17,432	1,134	7,777	506	5,154	114	1,254
1,638	8,620	2,738	17,441	2,612	15,586	2,096	18,664	779	8,786	1,161	13,221
1,162	7,607	907	4,950	1,185	6,966	727	4,201	288	3,226	387	4,448
15,300	2,758	19,450	2,695	37,850	7,565
16,204	2,408	17,515	2,644	14,057	1,939	22,422	3,272	19,867	1,949	17,314	2,650
...	9,475	...	13,016	...	12,602	...	16,362	...	12,156	...	14,075
42,140	1,439	440,700	4,491	167,400	939	405,000	4,294	51,400	480
1,629	92,863	1,744	94,146	1,415	76,762	1,293	67,060	987	42,018	1,093	49,718
...	103	1,027	1,068	123	1,068	100	1,130	118	1,296	135	1,761
78	24,683	49	15,023	70	25,096	10	4,362	8	2,978	4	1,615
216	2,910	335	4,012	219	2,703	163	2,130	223	3,013	188	2,366
292	875	178	3,612	220	4,400	177	3,540	177	3,540
71	694	213	1,172	240	4,302	66	611	549	76	756	...
...	51,643	96,572
1,254	3,683	1,260	4,084	1,529	7,738	1,629	9,773	1,329	7,974	1,473	8,838
309	929	566	1,682	410	1,491	493	2,114	303	1,460	426	2,066
5,446	4,087	6,681	4,908	4,573	3,681	3,263	3,007	2,004	1,404	1,224	856
7	4,392	16	10,452	12	8,505	26	19,209	17	11,465	47	30,651
7	1,468	9	1,019	8	2,011	14	3,452	10	2,375	8	1,684
13,897	55,584	15,465	63,087	31,060	131,379	5,805	26,798	82	355	26	135
32,030	176,167	45,855	256,615	51,076	309,704	9,095	55,638	147	894	56	356
2,834	22,673	3,250	26,158	4,391	40,074	8,950	7,912	121	1,086	26	210
...
10,965	4,615	10,973	2,347	7,585	2,669	4,518	1,424	2,594	846	3,515	1,407
1,027	23,193	906	18,925	1,019	28,533	1,006	28,237	893	25,004	844	25,208
39	2,323	24	1,439	27	1,555	43	2,389	22	1,332	22	1,362
55	5,117	31	3,089	41	3,759	126	8,720	97	5,795	13	780



WUHU.

DECENNIAL REPORT, 1892-1901.

(a.) Wuhu continues to be the only open port in the province of Anhwei. In the 10 years which have elapsed since the first Decennial Report was written, China has gone through two critical times—the war with Japan, in 1894-95; and the Boxer troubles, in 1900. In neither case was the peace of Anhwei province actually disturbed or its territory made a field for military operations; but, both in the earlier and the later troubles, grave apprehension and anxiety were widespread, seriously affecting the tranquillity of the people and demoralising trade. Apart from this, and from the great flood of 1901, the occurrences of the period were mostly of ephemeral interest, and a review of them furnishes comparatively little material worthy of permanent record.

1892.—In May 1892 a plague of locusts fell upon the agricultural districts of Tai-p'ing-fu and Ning-kuo-fu, and threatened the destruction of the growing crops; but by the united systematic action of the farmers, under the direction of the officials, the ravages of the insects were checked before great damage was done.

1893.—The winter of 1893 is memorable for the extremely cold weather which prevailed during January, and the almost unprecedentedly large fall of snow. Locusts again made their appearance during May, but very heavy rains helped materially in putting an end to them. An epidemic, serious in extent and often fatal in its consequences, prevailed during September and October, in the neighbourhood of Wuhu and in other parts of the province. In some districts whole families were victims of the disease; and the harvesting of the Rice was seriously interfered with by scarcity of labourers, so that considerable quantities of an unusually good crop were spoiled by the delay in harvesting.

1894.—In August 1894, during the war between China and Japan, a shop near the Custom House, kept by some Japanese, was surrounded and attacked by a mob of over 100 men, who threatened to burn it down. A company of troops, sent by the local authorities, dispersed the mob before any great damage was done, and escorted the occupants (four Japanese) in safety to Messrs. GREAVES & Co's hulk. This was the only hostile demonstration made against Foreigners during the war with Japan. The prohibition of the export of Rice during the latter part of this year, as a military measure, caused great depression in trade, and brought several business houses to the verge of bankruptcy.

1895.—Unusually cold weather, accompanied by a very heavy fall of snow as late as the 15th of March, caused great damage to the already well-grown Wheat and Rape Seed. On the 22nd of August a placard was found posted opposite the Customs Club, calling

upon the people generally to turn out at 8 A.M. on the 29th, to take part in the destruction of the Roman Catholic mission premises. The riot of 1891 being still fresh in memory, some apprehension was caused by this placard, and precautionary measures were taken by the District Magistrate. The 29th passed quietly, without any demonstration whatever, and the placard was probably a hoax—although the presence of a French gun-boat, which had arrived on the 28th, may have had something to do with the non-materialisation of the threatened attack. The Rice crop of this year was a remarkably good one.

1896.—On the 9th of April an armed band, of some 30 men, broke into the Tung Mow Bank and stole about \$4,000. Although seven of the robbers were arrested, the booty was not recovered. The summer of 1896 was a very hot and unhealthy one. Much sickness prevailed, and there were many deaths. The Foreign community did not escape. One member of the Customs staff died in April; the Commissioner of Customs and the senior Assistant were incapacitated by illness, one after the other, early in August, and charge of the office devolved on the 2nd Assistant, who died within a week of assuming charge.

1897.—In August 1897 the river rose to a height of 27½ feet, causing great damage to crops and distress amongst the people. Refugees flocked to Wuhu from the flooded districts, and amongst them many bad characters, robbery and piracy being of frequent occurrence. Disbanded soldiers, too, returning to this neighbourhood, increased the unruly element. In November a Mint was opened at Anking, for the coining of dollars, 50-cent, 20-cent, 10-cent, and 5-cent pieces. An attempt was made at the same time to displace the Carolus dollar, so firmly installed as the favourite medium of exchange in the interior of the province, by putting it, by official proclamation, on a par with the Mexican dollar; but the attempt did not succeed, and the Carolus dollar retains its position.

1898.—The floods of the preceding year, and the consequent short crop of Rice, caused a scarcity of food and high prices in 1898. In addition to this, a prolonged drought caused apprehensions concerning another short crop for 1898; so that there was much disquiet amongst the people, and, in obedience to popular sentiment, the export of Rice was prohibited in May. But the rains came in time; and an excellent crop being harvested, this prohibition was removed in September.

1899.—The year 1899 was a year of exceptional prosperity, regarding both trade and crops. Rice was shipped in great quantities until the beginning of June, when a temporary prohibition was put upon its exportation; but the new crop was an abundant one, and the prohibition was removed in September. The provincial Mint at Anking, opened in November 1897, was closed in August of this year, and the machinery and equipment sent to Shanghai for sale. This was done in consequence of the recommendation of the Imperial Commissioner KANG I.

LI HAN-CHANG, ex-Viceroy of the Liang Kwang, died at the family home in Lü-chou-fu, on the 11th September, from the effects of a malignant carbuncle.

1900.—This bade fair to be another excellent year for trade, the Imports and Exports during the first six months being unprecedentedly large; but the troubles in the North, and the apprehensions of their spreading throughout the Empire, put a sudden stop to the general

activity, and trade came almost to a standstill for a time, though the recovery was almost as rapid as the decline, when the northern troubles had been ended. Riots, brigandage, and lawlessness were common, especially in the early months of the year; and many villages and isolated houses suffered from the attacks of bands of robbers, said to belong to the "Small Sword Society" and other evil gangs. The frequency of such acts of brigandage became alarming; but owing to the firmness and activity of the Taotai and other local officials, who captured and executed a score of the bandits, and sent out considerable numbers of troops to patrol the country, this epidemic of lawlessness was soon stamped out. A riot amongst coal miners in March, at Fang-chang-hsien, was due to labour disputes, and was not directed against Foreigners.

In April there was a riotous demonstration at Anking, fomented by the Native postal hongs and directed against the Imperial Post Office. The despatch of mails was forcibly prevented for two days, without interference from the local officials.

In June threatening placards against Foreigners were posted up in various parts of Wuhu; and great uneasiness prevailed throughout the summer, amongst Chinese quite as much as amongst Foreigners. All Foreign women and children left Wuhu, and the men were generally in a state of preparation for attacks from some vague and uncertain source. But the Taotai and his subordinate officials were extremely careful and active, and whatever the danger may have been, there was no hostile outbreak. Numerous pacifying proclamations were issued; soldiers continually patrolled the streets; no gatherings were allowed; and guards were placed at or near all the Foreign houses. And so the plotters of mischief, if such there were, got no chance to carry out their evil designs.

In August riotous outbreaks took place at Fang-chang-hsien and Nan-ling-hsien, 20 to 25 miles south of Wuhu; but they seem to have been in no sense anti-Foreign in their origin, and they were quickly repressed by troops from Wuhu. On the 9th of the same month, however, an affair took place at Tatung of a much more serious nature, an account of which is given under (k).

From September to the end of the year peace and quiet prevailed, and apprehension of trouble gradually disappeared.

1901.—The year 1901 will long be known as the year of the great flood, an account of which is given under (k).

In the month of March two disturbances of some importance occurred—one at Wuhu and one at Ning-kuo-hsien. In neither of them were Foreigners concerned. The former was an attack by disbanded soldiers against their late commandant, which attack was quickly suppressed, three of the participants in it being captured and executed. The demonstration at Ning-kuo-hsien was the result of extortion on the part of official underlings, leading to the suicide of a woman residing in Hu-lo-ssü. A force of several hundred men, bearing the body of the suicide, marched to the yamen of the District Magistrate and besieged it, saying that official oppression had made them rebel. A troop of cavalry sent by the Chên-tai dispersed the crowd, killing seven of them, and put an end to the affair.

Locusts made their appearance in great numbers in May, in the country districts north-west of Wuhu; but the most of them were destroyed, by united efforts, before any considerable damage was done. Holes were dug in the ground, and the insects swept into them and burned.

Owing to the floods, and the consequent obliteration of the river banks and of navigation marks, many steamers grounded during the summer months. The Chinese s.s. *Kiangkwan*, which went ashore in July, was not floated until the middle of October, and then only after elaborate and costly operations; and the Japanese s.s. *Tales Maru* was on shore nearly three months before she was floated on the 28th September.

In September executions took place at Wuhu of two leaders of a secret society and of two brigands.

On the 11th November the Native Customs establishment at Wuhu passed formally and quietly under control of the Commissioner of Customs, although some weeks previous to this date great perturbation and anxiety had existed amongst the Native Customs employes, who held mass meetings and discussed, and agreed to, violent measures to prevent the change of administration.

New taxes of various kinds were adopted towards the end of the year, to meet indemnity payments, chief amongst which was a house tax, the imposition of which was announced in November. This tax was fixed at the rate of one month's rent per annum, to be paid in four quarterly instalments, on all rented houses, and on houses occupied by their owners if used for business purposes.

(b.) TRADE.—The province of Anhwei has, of course, other channels of trade besides those which furnish the figures for the Trade Returns of the Wuhu Maritime Customs; and though no complete or satisfactory statistics of these other channels of trade are procurable, we may indicate, briefly and generally, the principal branches of commerce not coming under the cognizance of the Maritime Customs.

The departments of whose products only a small portion—in some cases nothing—passes through the Maritime Customs here are Hui-chou-fu in the south, and Fêng-yang-fu, Ying-chou-fu, Ssu-chou, and Liu-an-chou in the north.

Hui-chou-fu is a great Tea-producing district. Its Green Tea is sent through Chehkiang, down the Ch'ien-t'ang River, to Hangchow and Shanghai; and its Black Tea goes by waterways to the Poyang Lake and thence to Kiukiang and Hankow. Timber, another principal product of Hui-chou-fu, is taken by both routes. A little of the Hui-chou Tea, prepared especially for Native consumption, comes to Wuhu overland, as do also small quantities of Varnish and Chinese Ink; but such portion of these products as goes beyond the port is carried by Native craft, owing to more favourable Duty arrangements. The return to Hui-chou-fu by the Chehkiang and Kiangsi routes is, however, a lengthy and laborious task, and, in consequence, we find a considerable portion of the return merchandise for Hui-chou coming to Wuhu for transportation to its destination overland.

The three most northern departments, Fêng-yang-fu, Ying-chou-fu, and Ssu-chou, send out and receive back goods by the Huai River and its affluents and the Grand Canal, finding their market and source of supply principally in Chinkiang. These northern districts

are poor, compared with those farther south, and their trade is proportionately small; but the Transit trade returns of Chinkiang give some indication of its nature and extent. There is also an overland trade between these districts and the adjoining provinces; and Liu-an-chou, especially, sends its Fungus and China-root overland to Hankow, and its Tea to the northern provinces, where it enjoys a special repute, some of it being reserved for consumption in the Imperial Palace.

The other departments of the province, lying on or near the Yangtze, send their products principally to Wuhu by Native boat, whence the larger portion of what is not consumed here is exported by steamers, and they draw their return supplies of Foreign and Native goods through Wuhu; but these departments also have their direct junk trade with the Poyang Lake and with the Rice markets on the Grand Canal. Thus, the departments of Anking and Ch'ih-chou deal largely with Kiangsi without the intervention of Wuhu, sending Rice, and receiving back Chinaware, Hemp, Paper, Tobacco, and Indigo; and the department of Lu-chou-fu has large direct dealings with Kiangsi. Anking also gets its Foreign Opium by steamer from Shanghai.

Of the Imports by junk at Wuhu, not subsequently exported through the Maritime Customs, the principal are Leaf Tobacco, Vegetable Oils, Grasscloth, Iron Pans, Native Cloth, Chinaware, and Indigo. Rafts of Timber, from Hunan and Kiangsi, form a very large trade with which the Maritime Customs has nothing to do.

Of the value of the trade which is carried on through the channels above enumerated, we have only fragmentary statistics; but one would probably be not far from the truth in allowing it a value equal to that of the trade passing through the Maritime Customs at Wuhu.

Having said thus much of the other channels of trade, we will confine our remarks henceforth to the trade recorded in the Wuhu Customs statistics.

From a study of the "Returns of Trade" for the 10 years under review, one is struck, first, with the great fluctuations in the annual values of the trade—the Foreign Import trade, for instance, varying from *Hk.Tta* 3,400,000 to *Hk.Tta* 6,900,000 in annual value; and the Export trade, from *Hk.Tta* 2,300,000 to *Hk.Tta* 10,600,000. The cause of these great fluctuations is the varying amount and condition of the Rice harvest, which furnishes the great staple of our trade. With an abundant crop of Rice and a good Export trade, we are sure also of a good Import trade; but without the Rice to pay for our Imports, both branches of our trade fall off. Though this principle of trade is true of all places, its truth is more apparent in a port like Wuhu, where a single crop—and that so uncertain a one as Rice—furnishes the bulk of the export, than in places where there is a greater variety of Exports. In the second place, the Returns show that, notwithstanding the fluctuations, there has been, on the whole, a permanent increase in the value of the trade—the total of the last five years of the decade, even if converted into pounds sterling, being very much greater than that of the first five years. Further, it appears that the importations of Opium have greatly fallen off; that Cotton Piece Goods, while subject to great fluctuations, have, on the whole, more than held their own, notwithstanding the great fall in exchange, though there are marked changes in the popular taste as to the varieties most sought for; that Cotton Yarn, which first became

a prominent Import in the first year of the decade, and in the six following years dropped back to comparatively small amounts, again reached very high figures during the last three years; that Kerosene Oil and Sugar increased almost steadily during the decade; and that Ground-nuts and Rape Seed came into sudden prominence as Exports towards the end of the decade.

The following table gives the net values of the Wuhu trade, in Haikwan taels and pounds sterling, for each year of the decade, with the average value of the three years immediately preceding the beginning of the decade for purposes of comparison:—

YEAR.	FOREIGN IMPORTS.		NATIVE IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.		TOTAL.	
	Hk.Ta	£ Sterling.	Hk.Ta	£ Sterling.	Hk.Ta	£ Sterling.	Hk.Ta	£ Sterling.
1889-91 (average)...	2,989,047	735,385	1,507,119	370,791	3,916,073	963,458	8,412,239	2,069,636
1892.....	3,933,092	707,099	1,746,757	358,447	5,243,390	1,075,982	10,923,239	2,241,535
1893.....	3,544,984	698,115	1,918,710	377,852	4,198,268	826,767	9,661,962	1,902,735
1894.....	3,416,889	543,968	1,651,561	262,928	5,156,090	820,849	10,224,540	1,627,746
1895.....	3,733,303	599,084	1,865,752	306,954	2,360,427	388,338	7,959,482	1,309,497
1896.....	4,255,747	707,805	1,860,479	309,430	5,508,602	916,176	11,624,828	1,933,412
1897.....	3,700,373	550,691	1,955,867	291,073	3,232,121	481,005	8,888,361	1,322,770
1898.....	3,913,420	570,047	2,230,057	321,991	4,037,052	582,897	10,180,529	1,469,936
1899.....	6,945,668	1,043,786	2,727,829	409,936	10,608,352	1,594,217	20,281,849	3,047,946
1900.....	5,973,642	910,173	2,392,765	364,573	9,714,541	1,480,156	18,080,948	2,754,903
1901.....	5,851,240	870,086	1,921,697	286,253	5,516,815	820,339	13,289,752	1,976,678

Considering the silver values alone, only one year—1895—failed to exceed the average value of the last three years of the preceding decade; and whether silver or gold values be taken, as the standard of comparison, the year 1899 was by far the best year. The Boxer troubles of 1900, followed by disastrous floods in 1901, seriously affected the trade of the last two years of the decade, which, nevertheless, take second and third place.

The course and fluctuations of the trade in Cotton Piece Goods are shown by the following figures, which include every description of Piece Goods (as well as Towels and Handkerchiefs, of which one dozen is counted as one piece):—

	QUANTITY.			VALUE.	
	Pieces.	Hk.Ta	Pieces.	Hk.Ta	
1892 . . .	430,732	785,857	1897 . . .	378,046	874,230
1893 . . .	367,501	690,867	1898 . . .	304,137	720,219
1894 . . .	242,259	556,751	1899 . . .	514,488	1,346,736
1895 . . .	298,996	764,665	1900 . . .	368,476	1,209,233
1896 . . .	400,915	1,011,313	1901 . . .	373,966	1,246,117

The importations in 1892 were exceeded only once in the subsequent years—in 1899,—and the figures do not show any decided and permanent increase in the quantity of Piece Goods

imported; but the aggregate of the last five years is about 200,000 pieces in excess of that of the first five, and it took Hk.Ta 460,000 more to pay for 373,000 pieces in 1901 than it did to pay for 430,000 pieces in 1892.

The three leading items in the Piece Goods list in 1892 were Grey Shirtings, English Sheetings, and White Shirtings. These still headed the list in 1901, though the quantity of Grey Shirtings showed a general tendency to decrease, while White Shirtings showed a decided increase. T-Cloths, which were fourth in the list in 1892, had fallen to seventh place in 1901; and Turkey Reds had fallen from fifth to eighth place. Cotton Lastings and Italians grew steadily in favour during the decade, and occupied fourth place in 1901. American Drills have also become an important item, the importations having grown steadily.

The average values, per piece, each year, of the principal kinds of Cotton Goods are given in the following table:—

	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	Hk.Ta	Hk.Ta	Hk.Ta	Hk.Ta	Hk.Ta	Hk.Ta	Hk.Ta	Hk.Ta	Hk.Ta	Hk.Ta
Shirtings, Grey.....	2.12	2.15	2.58	2.90	2.83	2.68	2.61	3.01	3.63	3.48
" White.....	2.14	2.19	2.69	3.40	3.22	2.53	2.52	2.72	3.58	3.64
Sheetings, English.....	2.02	2.40	2.94	2.92	2.91	2.61	2.55	2.50	3.18	3.45
" American.....	2.16	2.18	2.75	2.75	2.85	2.69	3.07	3.55	3.53	
Cotton Lastings.....	3	3.20	3.63	3.89	4.12	4.18	4.70	4.56	4.90	4.58
T-Cloths.....	1.42	1.46	2.16	2.37	2.36	1.90	1.79	1.79	2.15	2.03
Drills, English.....	2.40	2.58	3.11	3.54	3.30	2.91	3.54	3.79	4.26	3.79
" American.....	2.47	2.64	3.41	3.56	3.38	3.25	3.75	4.27	4.66	4.60
Turkey Reds.....	1.67	1.71	2.40	2.76	2.56	1.88	1.92	2.16	2.40	2.52

If we turn the values for the first and last years of the period into sterling, at the rate of 4s. 4½d. for 1892 and 2s. 11½d. for 1901, we have:—

	1892.	1901.
	s. d.	s. d.
Shirtings, Grey	9 3	10 4
" White	9 4	10 10
Sheetings, English	8 10	10 3
" American	9 5	10 6
Cotton Lastings	13 1	13 7
T-Cloths	6 2	6 0
Drills, English	10 6	11 3
" American	10 9	13 8
Turkey Reds	7 4	7 6

These figures indicate an actual increase in the sterling value of nearly all the varieties of Cotton Goods; so that the Piece Goods consumption here, in order to hold its own, has had to overcome the opposing influence of an actual increase in gold values as well as of the rise in silver values

due to the fall in the exchange. Further, the rapid growth of the Cotton Yarn trade has been another check to the imports of Cotton Piece Goods—this Yarn being woven into cloth on domestic looms, and thus supplying a considerable portion of the demand which would otherwise be supplied by Foreign Piece Goods.

The following table shows the importations of Cotton Yarn during the 10 years:—

	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.
English.....	501	195	93	99	177	90	75	99	39	15
Indian.....	30,271	9,484	4,852	6,837	10,437	3,723	9,365	50,796	21,638	32,673
Japanese.....	474	948	9,052	8,704	11,974	10,919	10,625
Chinese.....	21	9	1,173	5,919	5,456	18,774	11,465

English Yarn has practically disappeared from the market. Indian Yarn continues to be the favourite; though both Chinese and Japanese Yarns, beginning with small importations in 1895, had come to be formidable rivals—to each other and to the Indian Yarn—at the end of the period. The average values of the different varieties in 1901 were: for Chinese Yarn, *Tta* 18.80; Japanese, *Tta* 18.70; Indian, *Tta* 21.20; English, *Tta* 22.30.

Woollen Goods have never attained a place of great importance amongst our Imports, wadded Cottons giving a cheaper, if more cumbersome, protection against the cold; and even the small importations of former years have not been kept up of late, the total consumption of all kinds of Woollens having fallen from 20,568 pieces, valued at *Hk.Tta* 143,561, in 1892, to 10,907 pieces, valued at *Hk.Tta* 88,889, in 1901. The principal varieties, in the order of their importance, were, at the beginning of the decade, Long Ells, Camlets, Spanish Stripes, and Lastings; but in 1901, while Long Ells still held first place, Spanish Stripes had taken second place and Camlets third, while Lastings had almost disappeared, and Italian Cloth (which first appears in the Returns in 1895) had assumed fourth place, with an importation of 1,050 pieces. The higher prices, due to a falling exchange, are the only cause of the decrease in importations.

Turning to Metals, in 1892 the principal Metals imported were as follows:—

	QUANTITY.	VALUE.
	Piculs.	Hk.Tta
Iron, Nail-rod	10,055	22,302
„ Old	13,066	16,879
Tin, in Slabs	707	16,490
Lead, in Pigs	1,833	7,113
Iron Wire	1,051	4,450
Steel	988	3,279
Copper, Sheets and Plates	139	2,556
Tinplates	422	2,211

In 1901 the principal Metal imports were:—

	QUANTITY.	VALUE.
	Piculs.	Hk.Tta
Steel Plate Cuttings	7,788	27,121
Iron Wire	4,309	23,850
Tin, in Slabs	258	15,380
Iron, Nail-rod	4,180	14,029
„ Old	4,782	8,803
Steel	1,134	6,119
Lead, in Pigs	807	4,972
Copper, Sheets and Plates	80	2,245
Tinplates	135	1,012

With the exception of Steel Plate Cuttings, the items in the two lists are the same. Iron Wire and Steel are the only two Metals which were imported in greater quantity in 1901 than in 1892; in all the other items the falling off is very great. The new item, Steel Plate Cuttings, however, which first appears in our Returns in 1896 with an importation of 6,091 piculs, and thenceforth becomes the most important of our Metal imports, goes far toward making up for the decrease in the other Metals; these Cuttings, from shipyards and boiler factories, are used largely in the manufacture of cutlery, as well as for other purposes. Iron Wire is used principally for making nails and wire netting. Tin is largely used in the manufacture of tin-foil for joss paper, and for making pewterware. Lead is used by tinsmiths, also in the manufacture of bullets and of pewterware.

The average prices of the principal Metals, per picul, each year of the decade, were as follows:—

	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	Hk.Tta	Hk.Tta	Hk.Tta	Hk.Tta	Hk.Tta	Hk.Tta	Hk.Tta	Hk.Tta	Hk.Tta	Hk.Tta
Iron Wire.....	4.23	4	4.23	4.40	4.52	4.46	5.49	5.35	5.49	5.53
Tin, in Slabs.....	23.32	23.47	24.10	25.78	27.65	27.92	35.73	35.88	53.69	59.61
Iron, Nail-rod.....	2.23	2.21	2.30	2.32	2.30	2.36	2.39	2.37	3	3.35
Steel.....	3.32	3.25	3.51	3.43	3.44	2.62	4.35	4.35	4.64	5.39
Lead.....	3.88	3.70	3.88	4.47	4.18	4.04	5.22	5.51	5.75	6.16
Tinplates.....	5.24	5.22	5.30	5.12	5.18	5.01	6.55	6.88	7.97	7.49
Steel Plate Cuttings.....	2.16	2.20	2.27	2.37	3.03	3.48

Besides Opium, Piece Goods, Yarn, and Metals, our Foreign Imports consist of some 60 different articles of sufficient importance to have individual mention in the Trade Returns.

The list has been somewhat extended during the decade; but the additions have not been of articles having any special significance, except, perhaps, Sumatra Kerosene Oil, which first appears in the Returns in 1897. In 1892 the first six items amongst Foreign Sundries, in the order of their total values, were:—

		QUANTITY.	VALUE.
			<i>Hk. Ta.</i>
Sugar	<i>Piculs</i>	83,079	338,837
Bags	<i>Pieces</i>	4,682,754	144,760
Kerosene Oil	<i>Cases</i>	94,821	117,746
Sandalwood	<i>Piculs</i>	15,690	73,794
Matches	<i>Gross</i>	205,635	49,016
Umbrellas	<i>Pieces</i>	100,701	29,124

In 1901 the first six items remained the same; but in the order of value, Kerosene Oil had taken its place above Bags. The quantities and values in 1901 were as follows:—

		QUANTITY.	VALUE.
			<i>Hk. Ta.</i>
Sugar	<i>Piculs</i>	111,900	600,790
Kerosene Oil	<i>Cases</i>	300,572	518,271
Bags	<i>Pieces</i>	3,091,110	123,850
Sandalwood	<i>Piculs</i>	12,115	115,954
Matches	<i>Gross</i>	367,480	103,835
Umbrellas	<i>Pieces</i>	63,864	54,467

Kerosene Oil, Sugar, and Matches show a very substantial increase during the period; Bags, Sandalwood, and Umbrellas a decrease. The increase in Kerosene Oil is very remarkable, the importations in 1901 being more than three times as great as in 1892. In 1892 there were 80,021 cases of American Oil and 14,800 cases of Russian Oil. In 1901 American Oil had increased to 168,572 cases, and Russian Oil had increased to 106,550 cases; while of Sumatra Oil, which was first imported in 1897, there were 25,450 cases. In the amount of increase, Russian Oil has surpassed American Oil, which latter, however, still holds first place.

The Sugar imported at Wuhu comes either from Formosa or from Southern China; and while much of the Chinese Sugar acquires the status of Foreign goods by being refined at Hongkong or taken there for sale, there is really little distinction of quality between Chinese and Foreign Sugar. The total figures of Foreign and Native Sugar, therefore, furnish a better basis for comparison. Taking these figures, we find the total importations of Sugar in 1892 to have been 185,378 piculs; and in 1901, 200,837 piculs.

The supply of Foreign Matches, all of which are of Japanese manufacture, is supplemented by importations of comparatively small amounts of Native Matches, made principally at Shanghai. These Native Matches amounted to 12,300 gross in 1892; reached their highest figures, 35,200 gross, in 1899; and were imported to the extent of 22,550 gross in 1901.

The average values of the principal Foreign Sundries, each year during the decade, are shown in the following table:—

	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>	<i>Hk. Ta.</i>
Bicho de Mar, Black	<i>Per Picul</i>	29.70	28.54	31.19	34.10	35.34	40.14	40.10	40.47	45.91
Matches	<i>Per Gross</i>	0.24	0.24	0.23	0.29	0.25	0.22	0.28	0.31	0.30
Oil, Kerosene, American	<i>Per Case</i>	1.25	1.29	1.34	1.53	1.68	1.64	1.63	1.60	1.97
" " Russian	"	1.18	1.20	1.26	1.47	1.62	1.55	1.52	1.63	2.09
" " Sumatra	"	1.13	1.08	1.43	1.83
Sandalwood	<i>Per Picul</i>	4.70	4.86	5.28	5.38	5.53	5.25	5.43	5.52	9.51
Sugar, Brown	"	3.45	4.50	4.40	3.36	3.44	3.42	3.60	3.97	3.95
" White	"	4.77	6.05	6.74	6.09	5.45	4.83	5.49	5.64	6.10

In the consumption of Native Imports, it is natural to look for less change from year to year, both in the articles making up the list and in the quantities of the principal articles imported; for these Native products comprise few articles which have not been well known and in established demand for generations.

With the single exception of Cotton Yarn from the Shanghai mills, we find no new articles of importance appearing in the list of Native Imports during the decade. Sugar, Native Cloth, Cotton Yarn, Vegetable Oils, Silk Fabrics, Grasscloth, and Tobacco were the seven principal Native Imports in 1901, constituting 70 per cent. of the value of the trade; and these same articles, with the exception of Cotton Yarn, were the leading Native Imports, and in the same order of value, in 1892.

The following table shows the importations in the first and the last year of the decade of 20 Native products:—

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1892.		1901.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Sugar	<i>Piculs</i>	103,834	450,164	90,051	542,182
Native Cloth	"	11,168	425,761	7,091	307,177
Cotton Yarn	"	11,465	215,214
Vegetable Oils	"	33,141	185,607	18,045	145,362
Silk Fabrics	"	168	68,366	213	79,883
Grasscloth	"	1,884	83,892	1,378	70,244
Tobacco	"	4,641	51,819	6,503	63,930
Long-ngans, Dried	"	3,866	46,720	1,321	18,936
Tallow, Vegetable	"	4,581	33,641	347	3,069
Medicines	<i>Value</i>	...	33,081	...	27,210
Paper	<i>Piculs</i>	2,191	29,190	1,858	35,216
Fans, Paper	<i>Pieces</i>	611,889	29,044	335,367	21,608
Varnish	<i>Piculs</i>	334	24,012	35	1,317
Fungus	"	984	22,985	656	19,488
Dates, Black	"	2,902	15,261	3,861	18,313
Soap	"	1,539	7,515	2,094	7,552
Gypsum	"	18,391	9,472	53,891	44,843
Wood Poles	<i>Pieces</i>	3,284	5,998	17,264	43,639
Melon Seeds	<i>Piculs</i>	488	2,240	6,247	41,002
Coal	<i>Tons</i>	2,314	11,217	5,425	35,487

The falling off in Sugar shown by the above table is of no importance, because, as we have seen, when Foreign and Native Sugar are grouped together there is an increase instead of a decrease. The falling off in Native Cloth and Grasscloth is doubtless due largely to the importations of Cotton Yarn, by which it is offset. In the decrease in Vegetable Oils we may see the effect of the growth of the Kerosene Oil trade.

Amongst the articles which show an increase, Gypsum, Wood Poles, and Melon Seeds are the most conspicuous. The apparent increase in Wood Poles means, probably, that, through an extension of the employment of chartered junks, more Poles than formerly are passed through the Foreign Customs. The appetite for Melon Seeds seems to have been suddenly awakened in 1895, before which time the consumption was comparatively small. Gypsum is used as a mordant in dyeing establishments; for mixing with Beancurd; but principally in agriculture, as a fertiliser, or, as the Chinese put it, for cooling the ground: being a cheap and bulky article, it is carried more by chartered junks than by steamers, and the increase in the importations is probably, as in the case of Poles, due to the extension of the chartered junk trade.

EXPORTS.—The Export trade of each year was divided amongst Hongkong and the Treaty ports as follows:—

—	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>
Hongkong.....	5,706	4,202	3,142	3,868	1,051	8,935	3,551	11,400	17,938	15,416
Canton.....	3,337,548	1,470,814	2,274,818	598,520	2,564,489	1,264,544	1,314,724	3,136,437	3,831,483	2,330,719
Swatow.....	199,589	994,915	1,035,221	193,971	1,319,706	647,504	953,110	3,914,421	3,700,085	1,525,623
Shanghai.....	1,083,524	1,258,210	1,516,313	1,093,958	676,831	1,024,636	1,204,788	1,116,164	720,141	1,132,496
Hankow.....	518,709	348,662	257,795	261,644	902,447	129,704	39,297	35,409	86,285	212,558
Tientsin.....	...	35,931	...	172,529	31,346	130,655	378,184	607,267	31,362	7,336
Chefoo.....	38,255	13,888	12,432	58,928	1,055,456	683,355	131,895
Amoy.....	...	380	...	11,677	...	11,803	27,315	529,667	482,683	3,595
Other Ports.....	60,049	71,266	56,369	24,260	12,732	14,340	57,155	202,131	161,209	157,177
TOTAL.....	5,243,390	4,198,268	5,156,090	2,360,427	5,508,602	3,232,121	4,037,052	10,608,352	9,714,541	5,516,815

The figures here given only bring out strongly the fact that we live on the Rice trade, and our prosperity depends on the amount and quality of the Rice crop. With such great fluctuations as appear in this table, it is difficult to show that there has been a permanent increase in the Export trade during the 10 years; and yet it is doubtless a fact that a good Rice year now means more to the trade of the port than it did 10 years ago. In proportion to the amount of the crop, more Rice finds its outlet through Wuhu than formerly, and Wuhu has become an established provider of Rice for other ports in constant or occasional need of it. As the table shows, the two southern ports of Canton and Swatow are our best customers; for though Shanghai appears in some years to take more of our products than either of these ports, yet Shanghai is only a distributing centre whence the greater portion of the produce is re-exported to other ports.

The Rice export trade at Wuhu is in the hands of Canton and Swatow merchants. The Canton men started business at the opening of the port in 1877, and for many years monopolised the Rice trade. Swatow merchants first came in 1894, and their number has increased until in 1901 there were 10 firms of Swatow merchants to seven of Cantonese. The Canton and Swatow Rice merchants not only trade on their own account, but act as brokers, for a commission of $1\frac{1}{2}$ candareens per picul. They charter the steamers; and if they do not get commissions for a full cargo, they fill up the vessel with Rice shipped on their own account. They get the Rice through local middlemen, who go to the interior for it, the principal inland markets being La-chou-fu, Ning-kuo-fu, and San-ho. At the inland markets is found a second class of middlemen, who buy the Rice direct from the farmers.

The export of Rice each year during the decade was as follows:—

	QUANTITY.		VALUE.	
	Piculs.	Hk. Tls.	Piculs.	Hk. Tls.
1892 . . .	3,159,763	3,704,511	1897 . . .	1,521,912 2,221,083
1893 . . .	2,091,020	2,574,877	1898 . . .	1,654,714 3,019,124
1894 . . .	3,142,874	3,549,220	1899 . . .	4,922,746 8,779,846
1895 . . .	806,176	1,018,430	1900 . . .	4,970,810 8,022,238
1896 . . .	3,132,734	4,624,311	1901 . . .	2,324,424 3,689,394

In 1892 the river crop was a fairly good one. Canton took 2,756,149 piculs, or seven-eighths of the whole amount exported; but the prices obtained there, owing to the local crop being an unusually good one, were not such as to yield a large profit to exporters. Swatow took 176,280 piculs; Chefoo, 32,900 piculs; and 194,275 piculs went primarily to Shanghai.

In 1893 there was an unusually good crop; but, owing to the prevalence of an epidemic sickness, sufficient labour could not be secured for the harvest, and much of the Rice was allowed to rot in the fields. Canton and Swatow got a considerable portion of their supply of Rice this year from Annam and Siam. Nevertheless, the shipments to Canton from Wuhu amounted to 1,093,510 piculs; to Swatow, 802,852 piculs; and to Shanghai, 124,264 piculs. Some shipments were also made to Tientsin and Chefoo.

In 1894 there was a large export of Rice during the first seven months; but at the end of July the export was prohibited, on account of the outbreak of hostilities with Japan. The demand in Canton and Swatow was strong and the prices there high, and there was also an unusually large demand for the northern ports. The prohibition came, therefore, at a most inopportune time, upsetting many calculations and causing a number of failures. On account of the brisk business during the first half of the year, however, the figures for the year make a very respectable showing. The export to Canton was 1,947,142 piculs; to Swatow, 913,482 piculs; and to Shanghai, 215,517 piculs.

It was not until November 1895 that the prohibition of the export of Rice was withdrawn, and simultaneously a new Likin tax was put upon Rice, which met with great opposition and delayed the opening of trade, so that no commercial shipments were made until the 16th November. In the few weeks remaining 551,194 piculs were shipped. Before the raising of the

prohibition, 254,982 piculs had been shipped, under special *Huchao*, to Tientsin for military purposes, and to Hankow and other places for relief purposes.

The 1896 crop was a poor one; the rise in value and scarcity of copper cash hindered the moving of crops. Canton and Swatow districts had good local crops. Nevertheless, large quantities of the 1895 crop were shipped during this year; and besides 1,639,063 piculs to Canton, and 887,031 piculs to Swatow, there were shipments of 508,600 piculs to Hankow.

In 1897 but little of the previous year's crop was left for export, and the crop of this year, owing to disastrous floods, was a poor one. A great deal of the Rice of this province was taken by Native boats to the neighbouring provinces of Kiangsu and Chehkiang. The exports to Canton were 756,879 piculs; to Swatow, 427,384 piculs; to Shanghai, 211,285 piculs; to Tientsin, 91,771 piculs; and to Hankow, 26,547 piculs.

In 1898 the shipment of Rice went on until June, when it was prohibited, for fear of local scarcity. Excellent crops were harvested, and the prohibition was taken off late in September. But owing to suspicions that Rice was being transhipped at Hongkong for Foreign countries, shipments of Rice to Canton were limited to such as were covered by special *Huchao* from the Kwangtung provincial authorities. These *Huchao* being difficult to obtain, trade was greatly hampered; and it was not until December that regulations were adopted which were sufficient safeguard against fraudulent exportation without being too vexatious and difficult to comply with. The shipping season was, therefore, very short. Of the total export, Canton took 598,552 piculs; Swatow, 517,487 piculs; Shanghai, 258,166 piculs; and Tientsin, 218,245 piculs.

The good crop of 1898 was shipped principally during 1899; and as it was followed by an equally good crop in the latter year, the shipments during 1899 reached an amount never before attained. Exportation was prohibited from the beginning of June until the 20th September; but from the latter date until the end of the year business was very brisk. Swatow was our largest customer this year, taking 2,207,109 piculs; Canton took 1,452,098 piculs; Chefoo, 525,088 piculs; Tientsin, 325,611 piculs; and Amoy, 259,861 piculs.

The good crop of 1899, again, made good business in the first half of 1900; but trade came to a standstill in July, not from any scarcity of Rice, but from the general apprehension caused by the troubles in the North, which affected all kinds of trade. There was a fairly good crop again this year; and as confidence was restored in the autumn, shipments were resumed in the last quarter of the year, and the total export for the year went even beyond that of 1899. Swatow again took the largest quantity, 2,201,362 piculs; Canton took 1,973,500 piculs; Chefoo, 360,175 piculs; and Amoy, 249,589 piculs.

In 1901 shipments of Rice went on briskly during the first three months, the export being only a little short of that of the corresponding period of 1900; but after the first quarter the trade received a sudden check, principally on account of the southern ports being well provided with Rice, from local harvests and by Foreign importations, at lower prices than those ruling here. The crop of this year was almost a total failure in the country near the river; but further inland the harvest was in many places fairly good. Prices rose rapidly here, and there was little chance of profit in shipping, though some shipments were made in the autumn.

Of the total export, 1,230,648 piculs went to Canton, 823,500 piculs to Swatow, 57,149 piculs to Hankow, 50,007 piculs to Chefoo, and 36,468 piculs to Kiukiang.

The average price of Rice during each year of the decade is shown below, the price quoted being the wholesale buying price for first quality, second quality being from 5 to 10 per cent. cheaper, and third quality from 10 to 30 per cent. cheaper. The highest price reached was *Ta* 2.05 per picul, at the end of 1901. It will be seen that, apart from fluctuations due to good and bad crops, there has been a steady rise in price, which must be attributed principally to the diminishing purchasing power of silver, especially in its exchange for copper cash.

Average Price of Rice, 1892-1901.

PER PICUL.		PER PICUL.	
<i>Hk. Ta</i>		<i>Hk. Ta</i>	
1892	1.10	1897	1.48
1893	1.13	1898	1.98
1894	1.20	1899	1.98
1895	1.34	1900	1.90
1896	1.41	1901	1.98

Rice contributed from 43 per cent. (in 1895) to 82 per cent. (in 1899) of the annual value of the Export trade during the decade.

About 40 other articles make up our list of Exports, and of these about a dozen are of sufficient importance for separate mention. The following table shows the exportation of the principal articles each year during the decade:—

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Silk Piece Goods..... Piculs	2,069	1,871	1,780	1,125	90	2	3
" Raw, White	834	1,298	1,160	1,583	1,011	1,329	788	1,795	996	1,387
" Products, Various	1,263	1,460	1,548	1,860	1,192	981	1,106	759	1,090	1,228
Feathers	15,502	18,409	16,494	18,750	21,780	32,310	26,829	19,986	19,302	19,422
Wheat	55,166	61,934	38,025	3,451	95,311	112,332	11,340	122,965	170,777	139,981
Cotton, Raw	6,110	5,533	20,658	6,121	8,455	4,251	2,350	4,884	2,804	71
Coal..... Tons	11,282	3,577	668	3,857	3,097	793	564	1,849	1,091	1,626
Beans..... Piculs	27,969	56,585	29,688	48,594	40,489	3,195	59,509	84,479	157,688	73,932
Medicines..... Val., <i>Hk. Ta</i>	36,932	31,886	17,764	23,049	31,512	24,785	25,486	37,779	24,739	33,149
Paper..... Piculs	2,985	3,748	3,028	2,294	1,866	2,545	2,142	2,411	1,729	2,622
Rape Seed.....	...	8,123	248	1,244	610	11	65	65,574	18,719	235,962
Ground-nuts	2,310	3,280	1,232	20	186	4,669	19,015	44,687	73,848	48,304
Hemp	1,111	3,442	4,043	5,170	1,798	2,816	1,321	4,185	1,312	6,023
Hides, Cow	138	696	2,255	2,599	2,122	5,127	5,235	3,427	2,187	3,099
Flour	64	199	2,432	9,893
Egg Products	1,512	4,016	1,245	2,633	684

The sudden disappearance from our Returns of Silk Piece Goods is due to the making of a special arrangement, in 1895, whereby shipment was permitted, by the steamers of the China Merchants Company, at Nanking, the Duty being collected at Chinkiang, until the

opening of Nanking as a Treaty port in 1899, since when the Nanking office has received the Duty. The Various Silk Products consist of Refuse, Cocoons, and Thread.

The export of Feathers—Ducks, Geese, and Fowls—is an increasing trade, although the exceptionally high figures of 1897 and 1898 were not again reached during the last three years.

Wheat and Beans show the fluctuations due to differences in crop conditions; but, as in the case of Rice, the tendency to devote more and more land to foodstuffs shows its effect in a largely increased export of both these products during the last few years of the decade, as compared with the earlier years.

The tendency to give up more land to foodstuffs accounts also for the falling off in Raw Cotton.

The decline of the Coal export is commented on in section (u.).

The Paper which appears in our Export table is principally a superior kind of Paper, made at Ching-hsien, in Ning-kuo-fu, from Rice straw, with an admixture of the bark of a kind of oak tree.

Rape Seed is used for making Oil. It is sown in the Rice fields, after the Rice is harvested, and ripens in the spring before the fields are needed for the new crop of Rice. There has been a large demand for this article of late, for exportation to Canton and Japan; and particular attention has been given to its cultivation during the last three years, the exportation in 1901 being second only to Rice in value.

Ground-nuts, also a source of Oil, came to be numbered amongst our important Exports during the last three years.

The Flour exported was the product of the steam mill mentioned under (u.).

Egg Products are the dried albumen and preserved yolks, the manufacture of which is also referred to under (u.).

The average values, per picul, each year of the decade, of 10 of the principal Exports are given below:—

	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.	Hk. Tn.
Beans.....	1.23	1.18	1.23	1.26	1.40	1.60	1.82	2.15	1.76	1.70
Ground-nuts.....	1.20	1.27	1.15	2.18	2.28	2.33	2.18	2.30
Hemp.....	6.30	6.40	6.68	7.47	8.45	8.19	7.41	7.37	7.58	6.74
Hides.....	8.32	8.53	8.38	7.75	8.76	9.53	11.40	11.84	13.40	10.30
Joss-stick Powder...	1.09	1.24	1.17	1.20	1.21	1.18	0.85	0.81	0.98	1.12
Paper.....	19.20	19.02	19.34	18.81	19.41	29.05	22.08	17.60	22.34	22.54
Rape Seed.....	...	1.06	...	1.25	1.46	1.40	1.70
Silk, Raw.....	186	176	187	184	186	187	262	256	285	235
Tobacco, Leaf.....	7.67	9.95	12.14	12.61	10.60	9.25
Wheat.....	0.91	0.95	0.79	0.94	1.25	1.49	1.77	1.60	1.55	1.46

The upward tendency of prices, that is, the diminished purchasing power of silver, is plainly shown in this table.

TRANSIT TRADE.—The Inward Transit trade has, as might be expected, followed very much the Foreign Import trade—that is, there has been a large increase in the quantities of Cotton Yarn, Matches, Kerosene Oil, and Sugar carried inland under Passes; but very little increase, and in many cases a decrease, in other goods. Without going fully into the Transit trade of each year, we give here the quantities of the principal varieties of goods which took out Transit Passes in 1892, the first year of the decade; in 1899, the year which showed the largest Transit trade; and in 1901, the last year:—

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	1892.	1899.	1901.	
Cotton Goods.....	<i>Pieces</i>	99,478	119,008	59,696
" Yarn.....	<i>Piculs</i>	26,429	47,772	31,096
Woollen Goods.....	<i>Pieces</i>	2,413	1,290	753
Metals.....	<i>Piculs</i>	13,881	10,714	10,304
Palm-leaf Fans.....	<i>Pieces</i>	1,469,880	1,391,414	1,757,335
Lung-ngans.....	<i>Piculs</i>	1,675	1,440	684
Matches.....	<i>Gross</i>	93,932	182,537	164,500
Kerosene Oil.....	<i>Cases</i>	61,710	194,356	182,116
Sandalwood.....	<i>Piculs</i>	7,555	7,209	6,921
Sugar.....	"	81,735	100,184	108,971
TRANSIT PASSES ISSUED.....	<i>No.</i>	2,458	2,962	2,301
TRANSIT DUES COLLECTED.....	<i>Hk. Tn.</i>	25,715	38,734	29,023

SHIPPING.—In 1891 the regular river steamers running on the river belonged to five companies, viz., China Navigation Company, running three steamers; China Merchants Steam Navigation Company, four steamers; Indo-China Steam Navigation Company, three steamers; Dai On Steamship Company, four steamers; GEORGE MCBAIN, two steamers. No additions were made until 1898, when, in January, the Osaka Mercantile Steamship Company began running two small steamers; in 1901 the two small steamers were replaced by three large ones built at Nagasaki, and a hulk was brought to Wuhu for the use of this line. In January 1900 the Rickmers line of steamers, afterwards the Hamburg-America line, was started, with two steamers built at Shanghai, and a hulk was brought here for their use. Subsequently, during this and the following year, three similar steamers were added, belonging to the Norddeutscher Lloyd line, but having the same local agents as the Hamburg-America steamers. Thus, we have, at the end of the period, 24 steamers running regularly on the river—an addition of eight to the number employed in 1892.

The number of sea-going steamers has increased in proportion to the amount of Rice exported to the South.

The lorch traffic remains much the same as in 1892—the principal interest of that class of shipping, in this port, being the transportation of Kerosene Oil, of which business, however, they have no longer a monopoly, since the German and the Japanese steamers carry Oil.

Inland steam navigation has not attained great dimensions in this province. One or two small steamers have run intermittently between Wuhu and Lu-chou-fu, or as far toward Lu-chou-fu as the state of the water would permit, since 1899. A steamer ran for a short time in 1900 from Wuhu to Tai-p'ing-fu, and thence to Nanking; and in the same year a steamer was put on between Wuhu and Tatung, but made only a few trips. None of these steamers carried any freight, passengers being their only source of income.

(c.) The following table shows the Revenue of the port of Wuhu each year, from 1892 to 1901:—

YEAR.	IMPORT (exclusive of Opium).	EXPORT (exclusive of Opium).	COAST TRADE (exclusive of Opium).	OPIMUM (Import, Ex- port, and Coast Trade).	TONNAGE.	TRANSIT.	OPIMUM LIKIN.	TOTAL.
	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.	Hk. Ta.
1892.....	2,291	374,399	11,705	78,653	2,908	25,715	209,638	705,312
1893.....	964	267,918	15,868	76,303	1,414	20,229	203,472	586,170
1894.....	1,768	371,044	10,510	86,793	2,611	15,421	231,448	719,598
1895.....	358	123,010	3,612	75,601	1,182	17,621	201,499	422,885
1896.....	1,347	332,989	2,033	63,108	3,179	25,459	168,288	596,404
1897.....	182	206,039	3,600	46,724	1,747	24,639	124,576	407,508
1898.....	321	206,138	2,792	51,032	1,185	24,711	136,048	422,229
1899.....	2,683	535,673	20,417	95,748	5,107	38,767	255,328	953,726
1900.....	3,586	564,249	29,418	73,582	3,330	23,762	196,196	894,126
1901.....	3,723	306,122	25,625	59,412	2,010	29,023	158,432	584,348

This table cannot be said to indicate a steady growth of Revenue; but it is rather an illustration of how the Revenue goes up and down with the export of Rice, which follows the amount and quality of the crop, which, again, depend upon the comparative freedom from drought, floods, and locusts. Two good years of Rice harvest coming together brought the Revenue of the second half of the period slightly above that of the first; but, on the other hand, the collection in 1901 was much less than that of 1892.

The sudden increase in Coast Trade Duty in 1899 was the effect of the new Yangtze Regulations, by which Coast Trade Duty on Imports was collected here, instead of at Shanghai as heretofore. In the Opium Duty and Likin there has been a decided tendency to decrease, although in 1899 there was a revival which carried the Opium revenue to figures which it had not reached since 1887 and 1888.

(d.) FOREIGN AND NATIVE OPIUM.—Already foreshadowed in the Decennial Report for the 1882-91 decade, the gradual, but certain, decline of the Foreign Opium trade is clearly enough indicated by the figures for the period now under review. During the year 1881, 68,124 piculs of Foreign Opium were consumed in China (exclusive of the amount supplied to Formosa); in 1891, notwithstanding the growth of the smoking habit amongst the people, the importation had only increased to 71,863 piculs; and, after a further decade, with an ever-increasing national demand for Opium, only 49,484 piculs of Foreign drug passed into consumption during 1901. In 1881 Opium represented 40 per cent. of the value of the total Foreign Imports into China; in 1901, only 12.27 per cent. The causes of the decline would appear easy to find.

The new arrangement, made in February 1887, equalising the Likin on Opium, and making its collection certain where it had before been irregular and often altogether evaded, increased to some extent the price of Foreign Opium to the consumer; and the new financial policy adopted by the Indian Government in 1893, whereby the value of the rupee was artificially propped up, while that of silver generally was hastened in its fall, caused a sharp rise in the price of Opium, which has gone on progressively since that year. These causes gave a stimulus to the production of Native drug, already a competitor of the Foreign article, which has gradually led to the decreased import of the expensive Indian Opium, until it now represents merely the supply for the rich and that amount which is required to improve the flavour of the commonest varieties of Native Opium. In 1901 the average value (*plus Duties*) of Malwa was Ta 690 per picul; of Patna, Ta 645; and of the best Native Opium (Szechwan), about Ta 300.

Locally, the decreased demand for Foreign Opium is clearly shown by the Returns. During the 1882-91 decade 36,135 piculs (mostly Malwa) were imported into Wuhu; during the 1892-1901 decennial period the total importations only amounted to 23,569 piculs—a decrease of 12,566 piculs, or 35 per cent., on the previous 10 years. In 1901 Opium accounted for 23.6 per cent. of the total value of our Foreign Imports, against 36 per cent. in the year 1891. The year 1899 shows the heaviest importation, 3,192 piculs (against 1,700 piculs in 1898 and 1,558 piculs during 1897), due, probably, to the partial failure of the Native Opium crop of the previous year. During 1901 only 1,980 piculs were imported at Wuhu, to which we may add about 400 piculs as the amount sent under Shanghai Transit Passes direct to Anking. Assuming that only 4 per cent. of the population (25,000,000) of the province smoke, and that each smoker consumes 3 mace of Opium per day, the Foreign Opium is barely 3½ per cent. of the total consumption of Opium in the province.

Whilst it is still impossible to obtain reliable statistics as to the amount of Native Opium grown, there is no doubt but that, under improved methods of cultivation, official countenance, and a constantly augmenting demand, its enormously increased production has seriously affected the sale of its Foreign competitor, and has rendered China practically independent of a supply from abroad. In 12, at least, out of 18 provinces the poppy is cultivated, and where it was formerly grown in secluded nooks and on waste lands, it now ranks as one of the most important crops. Proper fertilisation of the soil—bone manure being largely employed—has resulted in a drug much richer in the essential alkaloids, and even for the manufacture of Morphia, the Native drug ranks but little behind Indian Opium. Accepting the Opium habit as an unavoidable evil, the Central Government and the provincial authorities have countenanced, if not encouraged, in recent years, the home production of a commodity the purchase of which from abroad drains China of an enormous amount of treasure annually.

The area devoted to the poppy in Anhwei increases yearly. Five years ago a good crop was estimated to be 30,000 piculs; at present, 40,000 piculs is given as the outturn in a good year, though it is probably much more. The principal centres of production are Weng-cheng, Kuo-yang, and Po-chou, in the Ying-chou prefecture, and around Feng-yang and Su-chou, in the Feng-yang prefecture, in the north of the province, and within the Hui-chou prefecture in the south. The production per mou is said to range from 6 catties in a good down to

1 catty in a bad year. Taking 3 catties to a *mou* as an average return, 40,000 piculs would represent an area of 1,333,333 *mou*—or, roughly, 223,000 English acres—under poppy. Five-sixths of the crop is said to evade taxation, and the bulk of it to be consumed in the province.

Dealers in Opium are licensed, rates ruling from *Ta* 30 to *Ta* 10 per annum; and the revenue derived from this source and from direct taxation is reported to amount yearly to only some *Ta* 60,000.

(e) The value of the recorded importations and exportations of Treasure, by steamer, during the 10 years, were as follows:—

YEAR.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.	EXCESS OF EXPORTS OVER IMPORTS.
	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>
1892.....	455,750	1,552,140	1,096,390
1893.....	402,540	1,914,575	1,512,035
1894.....	689,810	1,785,247	1,095,437
1895.....	686,773	1,491,908	805,135
1896.....	624,820	1,393,160	768,340
1897.....	172,310	1,853,320	1,681,010
1898.....	522,941	1,904,270	1,381,329
1899.....	581,269	1,385,440	804,171
1900.....	397,080	1,214,246	817,166
1901.....	164,480	1,239,616	1,075,136
TOTAL EXCESS OF EXPORTS OVER IMPORTS OF TREASURE, 1892-1901.....			<i>Hk. Ta</i> 11,036,149

Wuhu has no direct Foreign exchange transactions, and in all cases where it is necessary to reduce values to a gold basis, the Shanghai quotations are followed; these quotations, reduced to a Haikwan tael basis, taking the average for each year, are given below:—

1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
4s. 4½d.	3s. 11½d.	3s. 2½d.	3s. 3d.	3s. 4d.	2s. 11½d.	2s. 10½d.	3s. 0½d.	3s. 1d.	2s. 11½d.

The average value of the Haikwan tael in copper cash, during each year of the decade, was as follows:—

	Cash.		Cash.
1892	1,522	1897	1,395
1893	1,577	1898	1,351
1894	1,567	1899	1,385
1895	1,520	1900	1,351
1896	1,364	1901	1,437

The sudden increase in the value of cash in 1895 was due, partly, to a rise in the price of copper, and partly to a local scarcity which was only partially relieved in subsequent years.

The conservatism of the Chinese, of the inland districts particularly, is shown by their clinging so persistently to the antiquated Spanish dollar—the Carolus,—to the rejection of all others. The supply of these coins is very limited, and they have acquired a fictitious value far beyond the value of the silver contained in them. Intrinsically, a Carolus dollar is worth somewhat less than a Mexican dollar; but its scarcity value is Mexican \$1.32. The smallness of the number of Carolus dollars in circulation has more than once been a temptation to speculative persons to “corner” the supply. Such an attempt was made in 1898, and was, apparently, profitable to those concerned in it, who succeeded in locking up about 370,000 of the 400,000 coins supposed to be in circulation in the immediate vicinity of Wuhu, and demanded a high price for them. As mentioned under (a.), an unsuccessful attempt was made in 1897, on the opening of the Mint at Anking, to dethrone the Carolus dollar, by official proclamation putting it on a par with the Mexican.

The average yearly prices of various articles of export given under (b.) show only too clearly the diminished purchasing power of silver.

(f) The following table shows the annual net values of Imports at moment of landing, and of Exports at moment of shipment, from 1892 to 1901; and the annual excess of Imports over Exports, or vice versa:—

YEAR.	IMPORTS: Value at Moment of Landing.	EXPORTS: Value at Moment of Shipment.	EXCESS—
	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	
1892.....	5,011,048	6,047,923	Exports, <i>Hk. Ta</i> 1,036,875
1893.....	4,818,600	4,816,251	Imports, „ 2,349
1894.....	4,414,847	5,948,840	Exports, „ 1,533,993
1895.....	4,947,262	2,673,925	Imports, „ 2,273,337
1896.....	5,471,638	6,282,279	Exports, „ 810,641
1897.....	5,098,805	3,696,733	Imports, „ 1,402,072
1898.....	5,537,582	4,566,154	„ „ 971,428
1899.....	8,642,411	12,035,547	Exports, „ 3,393,136
1900.....	7,499,171	11,055,953	„ „ 3,556,782
1901.....	6,998,943	6,264,282	Imports, „ 734,661
TOTAL FOR 10 YEARS.....	58,440,307	63,387,887	Exports, <i>Hk. Ta</i> 4,947,580

Here, again, is seen the effect of our dependence upon so variable and uncertain a crop as Rice as the backbone of our commerce. From a preponderance of Imports amounting to over 2½ million taels in one year, we may pass to a preponderance of Exports amounting to 3½ millions in another.

The 10 years trade shows an excess of Exports over Imports of nearly 5 million taels; and yet for the same period the exports of Treasure exceeded the imports, as shown by Customs statistics, by over 11 million taels. This is doubtless accounted for, to a great extent, by the fact that in the junk trade, of which no statistics are published, the imports greatly exceed the exports. It is probable that, henceforth, accurate statistics of the junk trade will be available, which, combined with the statistics of the trade in vessels of Foreign type, will give a more complete and satisfactory view of the whole trade of the port.

(g.) The Native population of Wuhu has continued to grow steadily, and business establishments have increased in number, especially in the territory between the river and the city wall, which forms the business part of Wuhu. The population, given as 79,140 in 1891, is placed at 102,116 at the end of 1901.

Besides the increased permanent population, a good rice-exporting season attracts a large number of coolies, who find employment as rice porters and stevedores. These squat upon the foreshore, in miserable straw kennels, and lead a shiftless, hand-to-mouth existence, which makes them, while a necessary part of the population, an undesirable element in it, for when they are not employed they are a constant source of anxiety to the officials responsible for keeping good order.

To illustrate the increase in the number of persons employed in various kinds of trade and industry, I give a table showing the number of establishments engaged in some 30 kinds of trade at the end of 1901, as compared with the numbers in 1891 (see Appendix).

In the number of Foreign residents, whether in Wuhu alone or in the province (Anhui), there has been little change—the number in the province in 1891 having been 135; and in 1901, 129. Of these, about 100 are missionaries and their families. Since the first Decennial Report was written representatives of four more missionary societies have come to Wuhu. As for the mercantile community, besides the agents of the various river steamer companies, three or four Foreigners have established themselves in business in a small way, principally in the manufacture of egg products; but their ventures have not been, as a rule, successful, and at the end of 1901 only one Foreign mercantile establishment was maintained, outside of the steamer agencies. Three other Foreign firms are here in name; but they have no Foreign agents here.

Two hulks have been added to the five which were here in 1891, for the reception of cargo imported or exported by river steamers; and the number of Foreign buildings has been added to from time to time.

(h.) In the matter of material improvements there is not much to report. The roads laid out by the Roads Improvement Society have been kept in repair, extended, and added to; and at the end of 1901 there were probably 10 miles of well-constructed roads, principally leading toward the north and east, into the country around Wuhu. Some of these roads have been raised and widened, so as to form efficient dikes to protect the fields inside them from floods even as high as that of 1901. Much of this work was done by the local Floods Relief Committee, with funds raised partly by local subscription, but principally received from the Yangtze Flood Relief Committee at Shanghai—the object being, primarily, to relieve immediate distress by distributing wages to victims of the flood, and, secondarily, to furnish immunity from future floods to considerable tracts of country now protected by the renovated dikes.

A small portion of the foreshore south of the Custom House has been filled in and banded by private enterprise; but no public or united effort has been made to create a convenient and shapely thoroughfare along the river bank, in front of the business part of the town. The smallness of the Foreign community, the absence of a municipal body with adequate powers, and the indifference of the local Chinese authorities are a bar to all improvements of this nature.

The shipping hulks still lie at a considerable distance from the shore, without any bridge connexion such as exists at the other Yangtze ports, and communication with them in windy and rainy weather is laborious, inconvenient, and uncomfortable.

In 1901 a substantial and well-constructed drawbridge was erected on the Wuhu Creek, about half a mile from its mouth. This bridge, which is free to passengers, takes the place of the awkward and inconvenient ferry-boats which crossed the creek near its site, and which, at time of low water, were often the cause of accidents.

The Chinese charitable institutions mentioned in the first Decennial Report continue to exist, though the funds for their maintenance are raised with no little difficulty. The Yu-ying T'ang (育嬰堂) has not extended its functions beyond the reception of deserted infants, and its mortality rate is so high that admission to it is almost equivalent to a death warrant.

(i.) No changes of importance have taken place in the water approaches to the port or in the anchorage.

The following table gives the highest and lowest water of each year, at Wuhu, during the past decade:—

YEAR.	LOWEST WATER.		HIGHEST WATER.	
	When occurring.	Registered by Gauge.	When occurring.	Registered by Gauge.
		Ft. in.		Ft. in.
1892.....	25th January.....	2 0	20th July.....	24 10
1893.....	20th ".....	1 0	" September.....	25 10
1894.....	" ".....	3 0	1st July.....	26 0
1895.....	10th February.....	0 11	30th August.....	22 0
1896.....	27th January.....	0 4	27th October.....	24 3
1897.....	15th February.....	4 2	15th August.....	26 11
1898.....	5th ".....	3 0	25th September.....	20 11
1899.....	15th ".....	1 0	12th October.....	22 11
1900.....	27th January.....	4 2	20th July.....	19 0
1901.....	18th March.....	(Zero)	12th August.....	29 4

(j.) The lights, buoys, and beacons above and below Wuhu are under the control of the Kiukiang and Chinkiang Customs, respectively, which offices will, no doubt, include in their Reports all changes which have taken place during the decennial period. Speaking only of the immediate vicinity of Wuhu, it may be here recorded that a light-boat was added at Gallows Channel, about 15 miles below Wuhu, in 1899, and a light at Shansi Point, 8 miles up the river, in 1901.

(k.) Several minor riots and disturbances during the decennial period have been referred to under (a.). The affair at Tatung on the 9th August 1900 was something more than an ordinary riot or disturbance arising from local and ephemeral conditions. It was rather a premature expression of plans which had been laid by emissaries of a so-called reform society (新黨).

claiming to be adherents of K'ANG YU-WEL. The method of operation of these emissaries seems to have been to secure adherents to their cause, or, rather, aid in carrying out their plans, by a distribution of funds or promises of plunder to any whom they thought likely to be useful to them. In other words, whatever may have been the real principles and aims of the society, they relied on an appeal to the sentiment of greed, rather than on any exposition of those principles and aims, to gain them adherents. Thus, they corrupted the entire crews of the guard-boats stationed at Tatung, whose adherence was the more easily gained from the fact that their pay was several months in arrears; and they associated with themselves large numbers of salt smugglers and other bad characters, whom the prospect of loot, and perhaps some ready money in hand, would enlist in any cause—possibly even in a good one.

Funds to the amount of T\$ 8,000, said to have been remitted to Tatung for the use of the emissaries of the society, had been deposited in the Li Ho (利和) Bank; and in some way information was given to the manager of the bank, or, at least, his suspicions were aroused, as to the use for which these funds were intended. The manager consulted the local officials; and investigation resulted in a refusal to pay over the funds when they were called for on the 8th August, and in the arrest of seven adherents of the reform party—said not to have been amongst the leaders—on the evening of the same day. As a consequence of these arrests, and for the purpose of getting possession of the funds in the bank, the emissaries of the society gave the signal for action on the morning of the 9th, although their plan had been to keep quiet until the result of the expedition of the allied forces to Peking should become known. The crews of the guard-boats kept to their bargain, and not only supplied arms and ammunition to other participants, but turned their own guns upon the town, firing at the Salt Taotai's yamén, sinking his steam-launch, damaging the Native Custom House, and bombarding somewhat indiscriminately; while on shore a crowd rescued their comrades from prison, and attacked the Li Ho Bank and the Salt Taotai's yamén, which were cleaned out completely. The leaders of the movement seem to have exercised some control over their forces, and to have restrained them from general looting and from attacking the Foreign staff of the Salt Likin Collectorate or their property, except that the collectorate cruiser was fired at when an attempt was made to move her into a position where she would be available as a refuge for the Deputy Commissioner and his staff in case of necessity; and in the bombardment at least one ball fell within a few feet of the Deputy Commissioner's house. No attack was made on other banks. The amount of plunder taken from the Li Ho Bank is said not to have exceeded T\$ 6,000, and from the Salt Taotai's yamén money and other valuables to the amount of T\$ 10,000 were stolen, much of the looting having been done, it is said, by the Salt Taotai's own servants. The Shui Li Chu, or Native Custom House (General Likin Station), was also robbed of some T\$ 8,000. About a dozen persons were killed in the affair. Fires were set in the town, but, there being no wind, these fires were confined to the houses where they originated.

The greater portion of the participants in the affair left Tatung in the evening, going to Ching-yang (青陽), a few miles to the south, whence they threatened to return in large force to continue their work of reform. All the local officials had fled during the fray in various directions, except the colonel in command of the mutinous troops, who attempted to

commit suicide, but failed. Thus, Tatung was left without any authority responsible for the maintenance of order; and under these circumstances, the Deputy Commissioner in charge of the Salt Likin Collectorate and his Assistant, deeming it unsafe to remain there, embarked on the 10th August, with a few of their belongings, in the collectorate cruiser, and went to Wuhu, where they remained some weeks.

The reformers and their followers did return to Tatung, on the 11th August, where they were met and dispersed by some 800 troops which had in the meantime been despatched from Anking. Gun-boats had also been sent from Nanking and Wuhu to assist in restoring and keeping order. Numerous arrests were made, and about 60 executions took place of participants in the riot or subsequent looting. There was no further trouble at Tatung after the 11th. The Admiral of the Yangtze Guard, HUANG SHAO-CH'UN (黃少春), was sent from Nanking to investigate the part taken by the revolted guard-boat crews in the affair, and he installed a new commandant of the Tatung squadron.

This affair at Tatung was followed within a few weeks by the arrest and execution at Wuhu, at different times, of 13 men, some of whom were connected directly with the Tatung riots, while others were proved to be members of secret societies of dangerous tendency. An attack on Wuhu is said to have been planned, and a time for it fixed, by the reformers; but it was prevented by the miscarriage at Tatung and the death of one of their leaders.

Whatever may have been the object and aims of the so-called reformers, it cannot be denied that their appearance on the scene was most unfortunate and inopportune, at a time when the maintenance of peace and order in the Yangtze Valley was a chief object and endeavour of Chinese and Foreign authorities alike. It is fortunate, therefore, that their plans were prematurely developed, and so were the more easily frustrated; for, with their practice of enlisting desperate characters in their cause and inciting the troops to revolt, an initial success might have led to a serious and widespread rebellion.

Floods.—Twice during the decennial period has the country been seriously inundated—in 1897 and in 1901. The floods of the former year did great damage, and were the occasion of much disorder and lawlessness, through the influx into Wuhu of bad characters from the flooded regions; but the misery and distress in 1897 did not compare with the effects of the floods of 1901, when the river rose to a height of 29 feet 4 inches above the zero mark on the Customs water gauge, or about 2 feet higher than in 1897. Early in July the river began to overflow its banks, and the water rose steadily until about the middle of August, when it reached its highest point, from which it receded very slowly. The flooded regions extended for hundreds of miles along the river, and inland many miles.

The Wuhu district suffered, perhaps, as badly as any, and the aspect of the flood as seen here may be taken as typical of the worst flooded regions. The dikes built for the protection of the rice fields were either broken through or overflowed, with one or two notable exceptions, and nearly all the crops in the country within a few miles of the river were entirely destroyed. The people were drowned out of their houses in thousands, and sought

refuge wherever the hills—rising above the level of the flood like islands in the sea—offered space for the hastily-constructed matcheds or kennels which were their only shelter from the alternating burning heat and torrential rains. Thousands who took refuge on the highest of the dikes, and the last to be flooded, were forced off and drowned in a fierce gale which drove the waves over the previously unsubmerged portions of the dike and completed the work of destruction. The hills around Wuhu were resorted to by great numbers of refugees from the north side of the river, who pitched their tents amongst the graves with which these hills are thickly covered, and there lived for months in complete indifference to their gruesome surroundings. The victims of the flood not only lost their crops, well grown and promising, but the greater part of their live stock—cattle, pigs, poultry, etc.—was either lost or disposed of at ruinous prices, for want of a place to keep them and food to maintain them. And, still worse, the houses for the most part collapsed, their mud walls being saturated with water; and when, finally, the water had receded sufficiently to lay bare the land, there were no houses to go back to. But the farmers, with dogged persistency against fate and a spirit undaunted by their misfortunes, set to work, without loss of time, to rebuild their houses, drain their land, and put in a crop of autumn vegetables which in a few weeks furnished food which greatly helped to tide over the hard winter which followed.

On the north side of the river, however, the water could not be drained off, even after the river was well within its banks; for it had entered in most cases by overflowing the dikes, and not through breaches, and consequently found no sufficient outlet after the river had subsided. Thousands of the refugees from that region, unable to return to their homes, still remained encamped on the hills about Wuhu at the end of the year. As their small savings became exhausted, and the cold weather came on, their condition became more and more pitiable—poverty, misery, and distress increased.

Relief was distributed by both Foreign and Chinese committees, with funds both locally subscribed and received from the Honorary Treasurer of the Yangtze Floods Relief Committee in Shanghai. With these funds employment was given to upwards of 1,000 men, for many weeks, in building and repairing roads and dikes, thus relieving immediate distress by the wages distributed—100 cash a day—and making provision for protecting a limited portion of the country from future floods by raising and strengthening the dikes. Another very effective method of relief was the soup kitchen, established by Miss MITCHELL, and managed by her and by Miss VOAK, at which women and children, to a number sometimes reaching 2,000, received a daily meal. Thus the distress was alleviated; but beggary abounded and deaths from starvation and cold were numerous.

In the city many of the streets were several feet under water. The Taotai's yamen was flooded, and he was obliged to remove—after carrying on official business in a boat for some days—to a temple. At the Custom House the water came to the threshold, but not beyond, and for some weeks the front entrance was not used.

Fires.—Owing to the prevailing style of house in Wuhu—straw roof and bamboo walls plastered with mud,—fires are of frequent occurrence, and very often consume scores and even hundreds of houses before they are extinguished. So common are these disastrous fires that it

is difficult to select any for particular mention. Spasmodic attempts have been made by the officials to prevent the erection of straw-roofed houses; but such is the poverty of the people that no better kind of house is within their means, and it has been found very difficult to enforce any prohibition against the building of the straw-roofed house.

(1.) No specially noteworthy events, not recorded under other headings, have occurred in Wuhu and vicinity.

Some distinguished men have paid Wuhu a passing visit, but no official receptions or interesting functions accompanied these visits. Amongst these visits may be mentioned the following:—

On the 14th May 1898 the Hukwang Viceroy, CHANG CHIH-TUNG, stopped a few hours at Wuhu, on his way down the river, and received the local Chinese officials; and on his way up the river, on the 24th of the same month, he again spent a few hours here.

The Marquis ITO, passing through on the 19th October 1898, received visitors on board the steamer, but did not land.

Admiral Lord CHARLES BERESFORD landed here on the 8th December 1898, called on the British Consul and the Commissioner, and visited the Customs Club.

Sir CLAUDE MACDONALD, British Minister, paid a short visit to the port on the 5th April 1899.

On the 2nd May 1899 Prince HENRY of Prussia arrived, in the German cruiser *Gefion*, and spent several hours on shore, in the vicinity of Wuhu, in pursuit of shipe.

On the 8th and 9th November 1899 the United States Minister, Mr. E. H. CONGER, spent two days at Wuhu, and exchanged visits with the Taotai.

(m.) During the 10 years, 29 Anhwei men attained the *chin-shih* degree at the Peking examinations. Amongst them was no *chuang-yüan*, *pang-yen*, or *tan-hua*. Of the successful graduates, 11 were admitted to the ranks of the Hanlin, five became Secretaries of the Grand Secretariat (內閣中書), and 13 were made Assistant Secretaries (主事) in the Six Boards. Of the men who attained the *chin-shih* degree, seven were from An-ch'ing-fu and seven from Ning-kuo-fu, the rest being distributed amongst the other prefectures.

(n.) LITERARY MOVEMENTS.—There is nothing to record under this head. The Imperial Edicts, commanding the establishment of schools with a broader curriculum than has hitherto prevailed in purely Chinese schools and colleges, have not yet had any noticeable result, except that the old *shu-yüan*, or colleges, are no longer active institutions, while not yet replaced by the new schools. In the present financial straits of the government there are no funds for the support of educational institutions or the furtherance of purely literary movements, except such as may come from private beneficence, of which we have no notable examples to record in this province.

(c.) According to figures obtained from the provincial capital, and said to be the result of a rough census taken in 1901, the population of Anhwei is as follows, by departments :-

An-ch'ing-fu (安慶府)	2,002,813
Lü-chou-fu (廬州府)	4,355,018
Ch'u-chou (滁州)	1,345,560
Ho-chou (和州)	1,074,327
Hui-chou-fu (徽州府)	3,355,042
Ning-kuo-fu (甯國府)	1,419,755
Ch'ih-chou-fu (池州府)	1,148,064
Tai-p'ing-fu (太平府)	1,419,177
Kuang-tê-chou (廣德州)	1,276,713
Fêng-yang-fu (鳳陽府)	2,308,822
Ying-chou-fu (穎州府)	2,945,845
Liu-an-chou (六安州)	959,544
Ssu-chou (泗州)	1,287,058
TOTAL	24,897,738

These figures differ very slightly from those given in 1891, which showed the population then to be 24,776,819.

The number of *hsiu-ts'ai* and of *chü-jên* allotted to the province remains the same as in 1891—namely, 1,409 of the former, and 58 or 59 of the latter. The distribution of the *hsiu-ts'ai* amongst the different *fu* and *hsien* is shown in Appendix No. 31 of the first Wuhu Decennial Report.

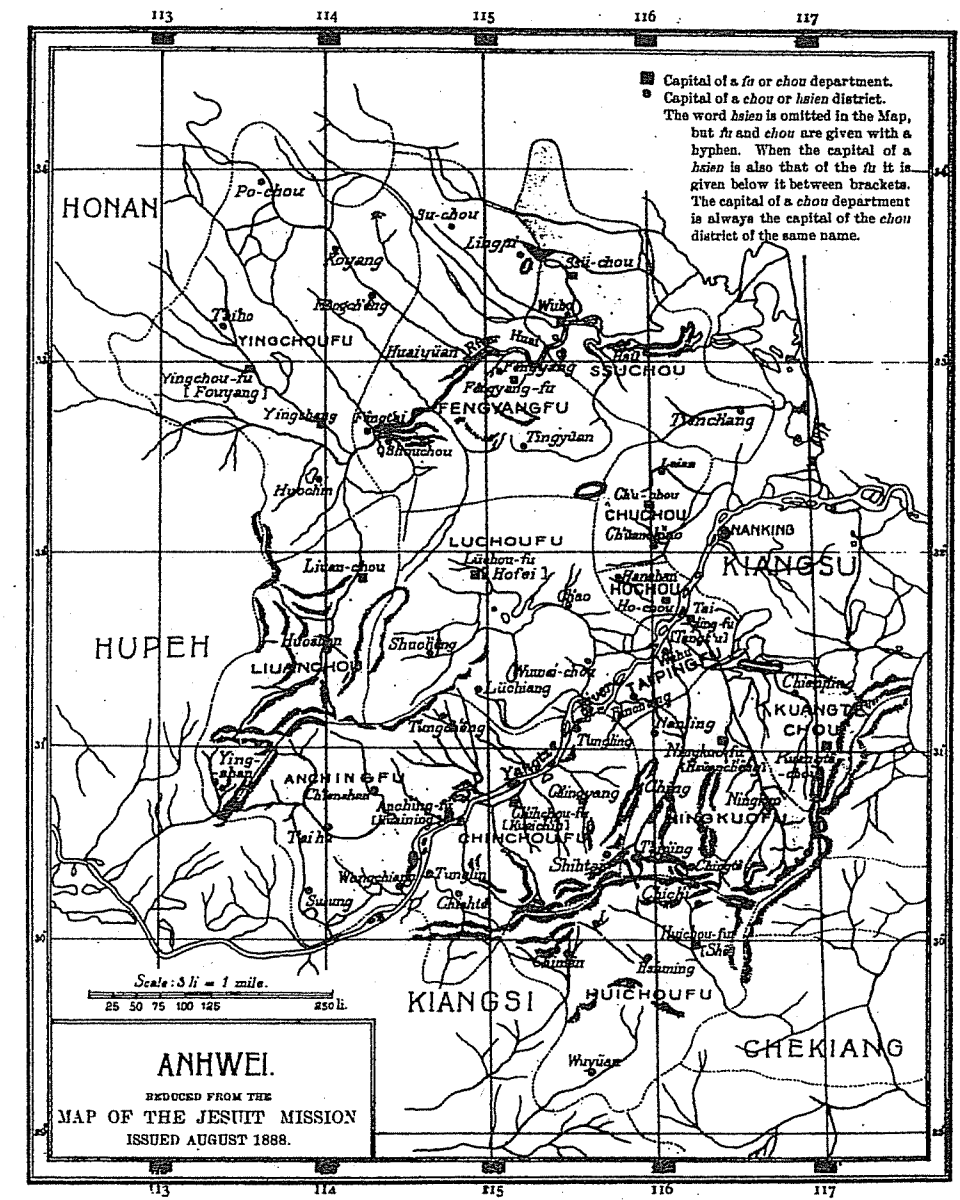
(p.) There is nothing to be added to the information given in the first Decennial Report, and to what has been said under section (b.) of this Report, as regards the physical characteristics of the province, its chief products, and means of transportation.

A table giving the monthly rainfall at Wuhu during the decade is appended.

MONTHLY RAINFALL, 1892-1901.*

MONTH	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
January	0.46	4.52	1.19	1.21	0.90	2.44	1.48	0.85	1.66	6.33
February	3.18	1.23	0.22	3.43	3.96	1.36	3.27	3.59	0.65	...
March	2.35	1.90	5.14	5.75	2.94	7.89	3.65	3.24	1.89	1.74
April	5.92	3.30	4.11	5.48	5.32	3.41	1.61	5.04	4.77	2.12
May	4.09	6.11	5.22	1.40	8.01	6.57	6.94	1.47	1.96	2.69
June	3.69	7.29	5.34	7.29	11.63	1.64	3.71	9.34	2.92	5.34
July	2.80	3.19	3.99	5.73	13.52	12.36	0.39	4.05	2.53	14.46
August	4.73	3.12	1.27	5.15	3.19	6.32	2.17	7.63	0.22	0.67
September	2.72	6.31	6.81	0.91	2.06	4.47	0.60	2.88	2.57	1.01
October	0.28	2.83	4.51	2.47	3.29	2.68	0.70	0.57	1.91	2.67
November	1.04	0.21	1.15	1.83	1.88	3.73	0.26	3.01	2.59	0.74
December	0.68	...	1.08	1.43	1.33	0.05	1.20	3.99	0.62	0.99
TOTAL	31.94	40.01	40.03	42.08	58.03	52.92	25.98	45.66	24.29	38.76

* Including melted snow.



(g.) NATIVE SHIPPING.—No changes have taken place in the types of vessels employed. Chinaware, paper, tobacco, and sundry boats continue to trade with the port, or to anchor here on the way to destinations farther up or down the river, in about the same numbers as 10 years ago; and rice-laden boats have increased. Boats 3 *chang* and upwards in length pay Junk Dues, and take out certificates which serve to identify them; boats under 3 *chang* long have no papers. The largest class of boats seen here comes from Hunan.

Statistics for three months, recently taken at the Native Custom House, show that, of certificated junks, the arrivals from Kiangsi province are by far the most numerous, the number during the three months having been 232, of a total capacity of 83,600 piculs. Junks from Hupeh numbered 27, with a capacity of 8,330 piculs; Hunan, 33 junks, of 21,500 piculs capacity; Kiangsu, 12 junks, with a capacity of 1,380 piculs. Of Anhwei certificated junks, the greatest number came from An-ch'ing-fu—142 junks, with a capacity of 16,880 piculs; from Ch'ih-chou-fu came 120 junks, of 12,980 piculs capacity; and from other prefectures in the province, 18 junks, of a capacity of 1,960 piculs. Of uncertificated boats—i.e., boats under 3 *chang* long,—only those which carry dutiable goods are recorded: the number of such, during the three months, was 1,757, of a capacity of 116,870 piculs. Of small craft carrying only passengers, or cargo in less than dutiable quantities, no record is kept. It is probably not far from the truth to say that 3,000 certificated junks arrive at Wuhu in a year, and that 8,000 smaller craft enter with cargo in dutiable quantities.

Of the cargo with which junks are laden, the principal kinds are rice and other grain, paper, chinaware, and tobacco.

(h.) But little additional information about banks or banking can be added to the exhaustive account in the last Decennial Report. Exclusive of the two government banks receiving Duties and handling official funds, there are now 15 firms engaged in general banking business, against 12 in 1891, and about 62 cash shops—some of these also retailing opium,—against 52 of the same class existing 10 years ago. Loans may be negotiated, by reputable persons, at interest ranging from 5 candareens per Ta 100 per day (18 per cent. per annum), for short periods, to 3 candareens 5 cash for each Ta 100 per day, on advances for one year or more; and interest at the rate of 3 candareens per Ta 100 per day (about 11 per cent.) may be obtained on deposits lodged with the banks.

(i.) The number of Native postal agencies doing business at Wuhu at the end of 1901 is 17, all of them being registered at the Imperial Post Office since 1897. The business of these agencies has suffered, to some extent, by the establishment of the Imperial Post Office, to which they have to pay—at the rate of 10 cents a pound—for the forwarding of their letters to Treaty ports. But they still have almost a monopoly of the parcel-carrying trade; and they are used by, and work with, the Imperial Post Office in inland postal work. They continue to give trouble to the Customs, and to cause loss and inconvenience to themselves and their patrons, by persistently trying to evade examination of parcels, although the Customs requirements are simple and easy to comply with, being only that nothing shall be concealed and that parcels of dutiable goods of considerable value shall pay Duty—small quantities of goods, especially if for private consumption, being passed free, if submitted to examination.

In their inland business the postal agencies combine—a dozen or more of them, or even the whole 17, being represented by a single agent at some of the inland towns. They do business with 21 places in Northern Anhwei and 14 places in Southern Anhwei.

(4) The Customs establishment, in its Revenue Department, has undergone little or no change during the 10 years. The staff, which numbered 19 Foreigners and 71 Chinese in 1891, is made up of 18 Foreigners and 79 Chinese at the end of 1901. The introduction of the new Yangtze Regulations, in the spring of 1889, occasioned the appointment of one additional Chinese Clerk and two Shupan; the other additions to the Chinese staff were in unimportant positions. The principal change in office practice caused by the introduction of the new Yangtze Regulations was the discontinuance of the Export Coast Trade Duty Deposit system and the commencement of the collection of Import Coast Trade Duty—a change which has worked well, and has rather lessened than increased the office work.

In November 1901 the Native Customs establishment at Wuhu, with all the branch offices and sub-offices within 50 *li* of the port—seven in number,—was transferred to the control of the Maritime Customs Commissioner; but up to the end of the year no more had been done than to make a careful study of the existing system and methods, with a view to introducing such changes as are necessary for the establishment of an honest, efficient, economical, and profitable administration.

The Custom House continues—as in 1891—to occupy the building rented from the Jesuit Mission. The site is a convenient one; and the building has been improved by the finishing of an upper story, which relieves the previously overcrowded condition of the offices. A new house for the Commissioner was completed in the spring of 1901, in the beautiful grounds belonging to the Customs, and the Commissioner's former residence was given to the Assistants. Little improvement has been made in the housing of the rest of the Customs staff, which leaves much to be desired; but a very good building, erected in 1893 by the Jesuit Mission, furnishes excellent accommodation for the Customs Club and Library.

The Customs Postal Department was in 1896 converted into the Imperial Post Office, without, at the outset, any decided changes in its management and methods, or any considerable extension of its business, except what came through the registration of the Native postal agencies, which were thenceforth obliged to forward their letters through the Imperial Post Office. Until 1899 no branch offices were opened in the Wuhu district; in June of that year an office was opened at Tatung, and in October of the same year an office was opened at Anking. In October 1901 offices were opened at Lu-chou-fu and Chao-hsien, in the northern section of the province; and at the end of 1901 arrangements had been nearly completed for the opening of offices at Ning-kuo-fu and Tai-ping-fu, and for a line of offices up to the northern boundary of the province.

Whether the result of the working of the offices at Wuhu, Tatung, and Anking may be considered satisfactory or not, depends upon the point of view. There has been a very great

increase in the amount of mail matter handled; the number of ordinary letters mailed, for instance, increased from year to year, as shown by the following table:—

YEAR.	NUMBER OF LETTERS MAILED.		
	Wuhu.	Anking.	Tatung.
1897.....	21,304
1898.....	26,877
1899.....	34,008	6,069 *	3,969 †
1900.....	45,650	40,684	12,813
1901.....	61,889	63,305	18,499

* Three months.

† Seven months.

But it must be confessed that the figures reached in 1901 represent but a fraction of the number of letters which one would expect to be despatched from a business centre like Wuhu; and we have yet to double and treble our business before we can claim for the Imperial Post Office the larger part of even the interport postal traffic—except as we count as ours the letters sent in closed mails through us by the Native postal agencies. As for financial results, leaving out of our calculations the money order transactions, which happen to be greatly in favour of this postal district (that is, the amount of money orders sold is greatly in excess of those cashed), the Wuhu office shows a considerable loss for the five years 1897-1901, the Tatung office shows a small loss, and the Anking office alone has been operated at a profit—not quite balancing the loss at Tatung.

In the spring of 1898 a Salt Likin Collectorate was opened at Tatung, and a Deputy Commissioner, with one Foreign Assistant, a Chinese Clerk, and a Chinese Writer, appointed there. The staff of this collectorate is borne on the list of the Wuhu Customs, and funds for its expenses are supplied by this office; but the Deputy Commissioner in charge is otherwise independent.

(u.) There is little to record in the way of development in military, naval, financial, or administrative matters. The equipment of the garrisons at Wuhu, Anking, Ning-kuo-fu, and other towns where troops are stationed is, for the most part, obsolete, drill and discipline are lax, and the military establishment is kept up only for the maintenance of internal order, for which purpose it answers very well.

The annual contribution of the province to the 1900 indemnity payments was fixed at Ta 1,000,000, and the necessity of raising this amount has caused the imposition of new taxes, chief of which is a tax on houses to the amount of one month's rental in each year. This tax was promulgated only near the close of 1901, and its results are still problematical.

In November 1897 a provincial Mint was opened at Anking, for the coinage of dollars and fractional currency—50, 20, 10, and 5 cent pieces. The coins from this Mint, known as "Lung-yang," were always at a slight discount amongst bankers and large dealers, but were taken by

shopkeepers, in small transactions, on a par with the Mexican dollar; and the small coins made a welcome addition to the rather limited supply of fractional silver currency. But after having been in operation for not quite two years, the Mint was permanently closed, in August 1899, by the orders of the Imperial Commissioner KANG I—whether from an excessive conservatism or on account of its being unprofitable, opinions differ.

In industrial enterprises, also, the development seems almost too trifling to record. A steam mill for cleaning rice and grinding wheat was established at Wuhu in January 1898; and though it is said not to have proved very profitable, it has, at least, kept going for four years, and its product of flour exported from Wuhu during 1901 amounted to about 10,000 piculs, over and above what was consumed locally.

The manufacture of egg products—preserved yolk and dried albumen—was begun at Wuhu in 1897, and was carried on with some profit, for about three years, by two establishments, eggs and labour being cheap. The difficulty of getting good salt at a reasonable price—Foreign salt being prohibited—has been a great obstacle to success in this industry; and the gradual lowering in the prices obtained abroad for the products has practically put an end to it, though one establishment still kept up business on a small scale in 1901.

In March 1898 an attempt was made to introduce jinrichas to ply for hire; but the experiment was very short-lived. Possibly it might have been attended with more success if the improvements since made in the roads had then existed.

In coal mining, which furnished the only text for the paragraphs on industrial development in the first Decennial Report, no progress has been made, though coal is still produced from the Ch'ih-chou mines, and from mines in Fang-chang, Ning-kuo, Hsuan-chêng, and other districts, worked by the old primitive methods. The exported product, however, is much less than it was 10 years ago. The coal-fields of Anhwei have not escaped the attention of Foreign capitalists, and negotiations have been begun, in more than one direction, with a view to their scientific development; in fact, it is said that a company of Japanese capitalists, in connexion with local Chinese, will soon begin operations at one mine with modern mining machinery made in Japan. The coal coming to Wuhu in 1901 was almost entirely from the Fang-chang mines. The export to other ports amounted to 1,626 tons, of which 1,612 tons went in Native boats. This coal is not fit for steamers use, but for heating and cooking is considered fairly good.

(v.) Besides the four missions mentioned in the first Decennial Report as existing in 1891, there were two others having establishments in the province, though having at that time no Foreign representative at Wuhu—these were the China Inland Mission and the American Episcopal Church Mission.

The Jesuit Mission had in 1891, in its Anhwei branch, 29 missionaries, 105 churches, and 6,380 converts. In 1901 the numbers had increased to 41 missionaries (including four Native preachers), 208 churches, and 14,208 converts. This mission has stations in eight prefectures or departments, viz., T'ai-p'ing-fu, Ning-kuo-fu, An-ch'ing-fu, Hui-chou-fu, Ch'ih-chou-fu, Ying-chou-fu, Ssu-chou, and Liu-an-chou. There are 86 schools for boys, with 2,158 pupils; and 49 schools for girls, with 1,215 pupils.

Of the Methodist Episcopal Mission, the Rev. H. F. ROWE writes as follows:—

"The Methodist Episcopal Mission had in the province of Anhwei, in January 1892, three stations, viz., at Wuhu (Second Street), at I-chi-shan, and at T'ai-p'ing-fu; there were three separate churches, one hospital, and two day-schools. At this time there were two missionaries and their wives, three Native pastors, and seven other helpers; there were 53 converts.

"Since January 1892 there have been added three new stations, viz., at Ho-chou, Yuan-tsao, and Ti-kan; there have been added four churches, viz., at Ho-chou, Yuan-tsao, Ti-kan, and T'ai-p'ing-fu; there have been added seven preaching-places where worship is regularly conducted in private homes; there have been added five day-schools, viz., two at Wuhu, one at Yuan-tsao, one at Lu-kang, and one at T'ai-p'ing-fu. There are now two missionaries and their wives and two unmarried missionaries, six preachers, six teachers, three bible-women, and two hospital assistants (regular hospital force is four). The present membership is 250, which does not include adherents or pupils in schools; besides, there have been converted in the Wuhu Hospital, at a low estimate, 150 persons, 70 per cent. of whom have connected with other denominations in places where we have no work.

"In all our day-schools, besides teaching Chinese letters, we teach something of geography and arithmetic, and in some we teach natural science.

"The result of our work must be viewed in the light of the discouragement and hindrance so often put in our way, in the light of the uprisings, and in the light of the comparatively short time most of our work has been opened. When so viewed, we feel that though our work is, in its results, scarcely satisfactory, it is certainly very encouraging. The quality of the converts is improving. We have access to some of the best families now; and the moral effects, though slow to appear, are good. The number of converts made, considering the amount of work done, is encouraging."

The Rev. C. E. MOLLAND, of the Foreign Christian Missionary Society, furnishes the following information about the work of the Foreign Christian Mission:—

"In 1892 there were four stations in Anhwei, viz., at Ch'ih-chou-fu, Chu-lung-chiao, Wuhu, and Wu-wei-chou. There were five Foreign missionaries—three men and two women—and three Native preachers. The church membership numbered 22.

"Since 1892 three new stations have been added, namely, at Lu-chou-fu, Chuan-chiao-hsien, and Yu-ho-chi. In 1901 there are 10 Foreign missionaries—five men and five women—and seven Native helpers. The church membership is 248. Besides evangelical work, medical work is carried on at Lu-chou-fu and Ch'ih-chou-fu."

Concerning the Christian and Missionary Alliance, formerly called the International Missionary Alliance, I have obtained the following information from the Rev. WILLIAM CHRISTIE:—

"The Christian and Missionary Alliance began its work in China about the year 1890; it was then known as the International Missionary Alliance. Its first missionaries settled in Wuhu, and thus this port became, and still remains, its head-quarters in China.

"There were two stations of our mission in Anhwei province in January 1892—one at Tatung and the other at Wuhu; there were two churches (one at each station); but no schools, hospitals, or other religious or charitable establishments. We had then in the province eight missionaries, two Native preachers, one Native helper, and six converts.

"There have been added during the 10 years four new stations—one each at South Wuhu, Wan-chi, Nan-ling-hsien, and Taing-yang-hsien. There have been added also five new churches—one each at South Wuhu, Wan-chi, Nan-ling, Taing-yang, and Han-shan. Eight day-schools have been started during this period—three of them are in Wuhu, one in Wan-chi, one in Nan-ling, one in Taing-yang, one in Tatung, and one in Han-shan; moreover, a school for the training of Native bible-women has been started at Nan-ling. At the beginning of 1901 we had in this province 12 missionaries, five Native preachers, 11 Native helpers, and 168 church members.

"Besides purely religious instruction, some of the Chinese books are taught in our day-schools. We had one sewing class in Wuhu for several years. No active measures are taken against foot-binding, other than discouraging it when occasion requires.

"Considering we are a new mission, of little more than 10 years standing, we think the results of our work are encouraging, though not entirely satisfactory. The numbers of converts is not as great as expected; yet the quality of some of them gives cause for thankfulness that our work here has not been in vain."

The Rev. J. J. COULTHARD writes as follows concerning the work and growth of the China Inland Mission in this province:—

"In January 1892 there were nine stations worked by the China Inland Mission, viz., Anking, Ch'ih-chou, Ning-kuo-fu, Hui-chou-fu, Ch'eng-yang-kuan, Ku-ch'eng, Tatung, Liu-an-chou, and Kuang-t'ê-chou, and one out-station at Tai-p'ing-fu; there were eight separate churches, viz., three superintended from Anking, two in the vicinity of Lai-an-hsien, and one each in Ning-kuo-fu, Hui-chou-fu, and Ch'eng-yang-kuan; there were two schools—one day-school at Ku-ch'eng and a boarding-school at Anking. At this time there were 30 missionaries in the field (including wives); 16 Native helpers were employed and 12 unpaid helpers. 376 converts had been baptised from the commencement.

"During the past decade there have been added 11 stations and out-stations, viz., Tai-ho, Ying-chou-fu, Kien-t'ê, Kien-p'ing, Lai-an, and Hu-ts'uan, with two out-stations belonging to Anking, two worked from Hui-chou, and one from Lai-an; 12 new churches have been formed, viz., Wuhu, Tai-p'ing, Anking, Kien-p'ing, Kuang-t'ê, Lai-an, Hu-ts'uan, Ying-chou, Tai-ho, Ch'ih-chou, and two in Hui-chou prefecture; three dispensaries have been opened, viz., at Anking, Ch'ih-chou, and Ying-chou; 10 schools have been opened, viz., Wuhu, Tai-ho, Ying-chou, Lai-an, Tatung, Ch'ien-shan, Hui-chou, an additional one in Anking, and two in Ning-kuo-fu. There are, at present, 35 missionaries (including the wives of the married) in the field and 13 absent; there are 39 paid and 19 unpaid Native helpers. 522 converts have been baptised from the commencement.

"Only purely religious teaching is arranged for by the mission; but secular instruction may be afforded in a private capacity, as also propaganda against foot-binding and other abuses.

"Where the work has been carried on systematically and without change of *personnel*, the results have been encouraging. In many of the stations the work is too new to speak decisively as to results. In some of the stations change of workers has materially affected the success of the work; but ill health and other causes prevented the continuity being maintained. Some of the stations have supplied Native helpers and servants, not only to various stations of the C.I.M., but also to other missions; and this fact proves the value of at least some of the converts. The Yangtze Valley stations of other missions have often been reinforced by transfers from the China Inland Mission.

"Owing to the danger that now threatens mission work, through the error that has got abroad identifying the missionary with political agency, and supposing that church membership entitles the candidate to help in lawsuits, etc., extreme caution has been necessary; and in some of the C.I.M. stations no converts have been received into the church for two or three years, to teach the lesson that only the true and genuine will be accepted, and the least expectation of help or involvement in a lawsuit is an effectual barrier to the acceptance of a Native."

Of the American Episcopal Church Mission, the Rev. F. E. LUND reports as follows:—

"In January 1892 the American Church Mission had only one Native worker in this province, stationed in Wuhu. The work at that time was limited to a day-school and a chapel in a rented Chinese house. The total number of baptised church members was 17.

"Since then five more stations have been opened: three near Wuhu, in a south-easterly direction—Lu-kang, Fan-ch'ang, and Nan-ling; one in Anking; and one in Tai-hu-hsien, to the north of Anking. In all these places, with the exception of Anking, where a small chapel has been erected, we are using Chinese houses for chapels and schools. Two more schools have been opened. The following statistics will show our gain and present status in the province:—

- "Day-schools, 2 (1 in Wuhu and 1 in Anking); number of scholars, 42.
- Boarding-school, 1 (in Wuhu); scholars, 18.
- Missionary stations, 6.
- Number of people under Christian instruction, 500.
- Baptised church members, 132.
- Hospital, 1 (in Anking).
- Missionaries, 3 (of whom clergymen, 2; doctor, 1).
- Native clergymen, 2.
- " preachers, 6.
- " teachers, 5.

"I may add that the extension of the work dates from September 1898, when Foreign missionaries were put in charge and most of the Native helpers added.

"So far, the work has been purely of a religious character, with the exception of the Wuhu boarding-school, where we give instruction in English and ordinary school subjects, on the plan of the public schools in Europe. We discourage foot-binding, but do not make it a matter of discipline in the church, like opium-smoking, idolatry, and other vices.

"The work has not been regarded as satisfactory, in any sense, until the year before last, when a good number of converts were added. The moral character of church members has, during the last three years, been encouraging. Many of them stood the test of persecution last year nobly. Their monthly contribution towards the support of the work has been very good; and lawsuits among the converts, as well as between converts and heathens, have almost ceased—in fact, during the last 12 months none have come under my notice. With regard to the moral side of our work, I would say that the result is such as to encourage us to go on. The influence for good of the church is, and will be, as powerful in China as in any other country."

The American Bible Society has also had a representative at Wuhu for two or three years, its work being principally the sale and distribution of bibles and religious books.

(w.) *HUI-KUAN*.—All the *hui-kuan* mentioned in the first Decennial Report still exist. No new ones have been added during the 10 years; but one establishment which comes under this heading escaped mention in the first Report, namely, the Ko-hsien-wêng Ssü (萬仙翁祠), which is a club, or meeting-place, for the dealers in the fine white paper manufactured in Ching-hsien and Hsian-chêng-hsien, of Ning-kuo-fu. The buildings occupied by this association are extensive and imposing—perhaps out of proportion to the importance of the business represented.

The *hui-kuan* of Anhwei men in other provinces remain the same as 10 years ago, the merchants from Hui-chou-fu being best represented.

(x.) Of the natives of Anhwei province mentioned in the first Decennial Report as having won distinction in civil or military official life, nearly all have "passed over" during the period under review. The Viceroy LI HAN-CHANG died at his home, in Lü-chou-fu, in September 1899; his greater brother, LI HUNG-CHANG, died in November 1901. The Admirals TING JU-CH'ANG and KUO PAO-CH'ANG, and the three Li's—LIU MING-CH'UAN, LIU PING-CHANG, and LIU JUI-FÊN,—have all died within the 10 years. SUN CHIA-NAI survives, and is President of the Board of Civil Office and Assistant Grand Secretary. TS'UI KUO-YIN now lives in retirement at Wuhu.

No new names of Anhwei men have come into marked prominence during the last 10 years.

Of officials who have held office in Anhwei, two suffered death in consequence of events connected with the Boxer troubles in 1900. One was YUAN CH'ANG, who was Taotai at Wuhu from June 1893 to July 1898, and was then appointed, successively, Provincial Judge of Shensi, Provincial Treasurer at Nanking (neither of which appointments did he take up), Director of the Court of Sacrificial Worship at Peking, and Minister of the Tsungli Yamên. His execution at Peking, during the siege of the Legations, for bravely protesting against the mad course taken by those who were then in power, is a matter of history. The other former Anhwei official referred to was CHANG YIN-HUAN, who was Taotai at Wuhu from March 1882 to February 1884, and afterwards, successively, Acting Provincial Judge of Anhwei, Minister to the United States, Spain, and Peru, Vice-President of the Board of Ceremonies, Vice-President of the Board of Revenue, Special Ambassador to the Diamond Jubilee of Queen VICTORIA, and Minister of the Tsungli Yamên. He was banished in the autumn of 1898, for his connexion with the projected reforms of K'ANG YU-WEI, and was subsequently put to death, during the Boxer troubles in 1900, at his place of exile.

YANG JU, Taotai at Wuhu from February 1892 to January 1893, was subsequently appointed Minister, successively, to the United States and to Russia.

(y.) No books of national repute have issued from Anhwei province during the 10 years.

(z.) Any prophecy as to the extent or rapidity of development of the resources of Anhwei province, or the direction in which such development will principally lie, must be offered with great diffidence. The examination into its mineral resources has not gone far enough to justify a confident prediction that their development is to give a new industrial importance to the province, though that opinion has been freely expressed. There is, perhaps, better ground for confidence in such a development of its agricultural resources as shall give the province first place as a grain-producing country, and make Wuhu the principal granary of the Empire, and a great centre for the distribution of the Foreign and Native products brought in to pay for the grain shipped. For a systematic extension of dikes and embankments would protect from flood, and reclaim for cultivation, vast tracts of land which now grow only reeds; and improved methods, or merely an extension of present methods, of irrigation would secure the rice crops against drought. Thus, protected from floods on the one hand and from drought on the other, the rice crop would become a sure one; and the area of cultivation being greatly extended, the surplus for exportation would become so large that shipment would go on uninterruptedly throughout the year. Such an agricultural and commercial development, under conditions of peace and good government, seems not only possible, but probable—and here, perhaps, prophecy may rest.

H. F. MERRILL,

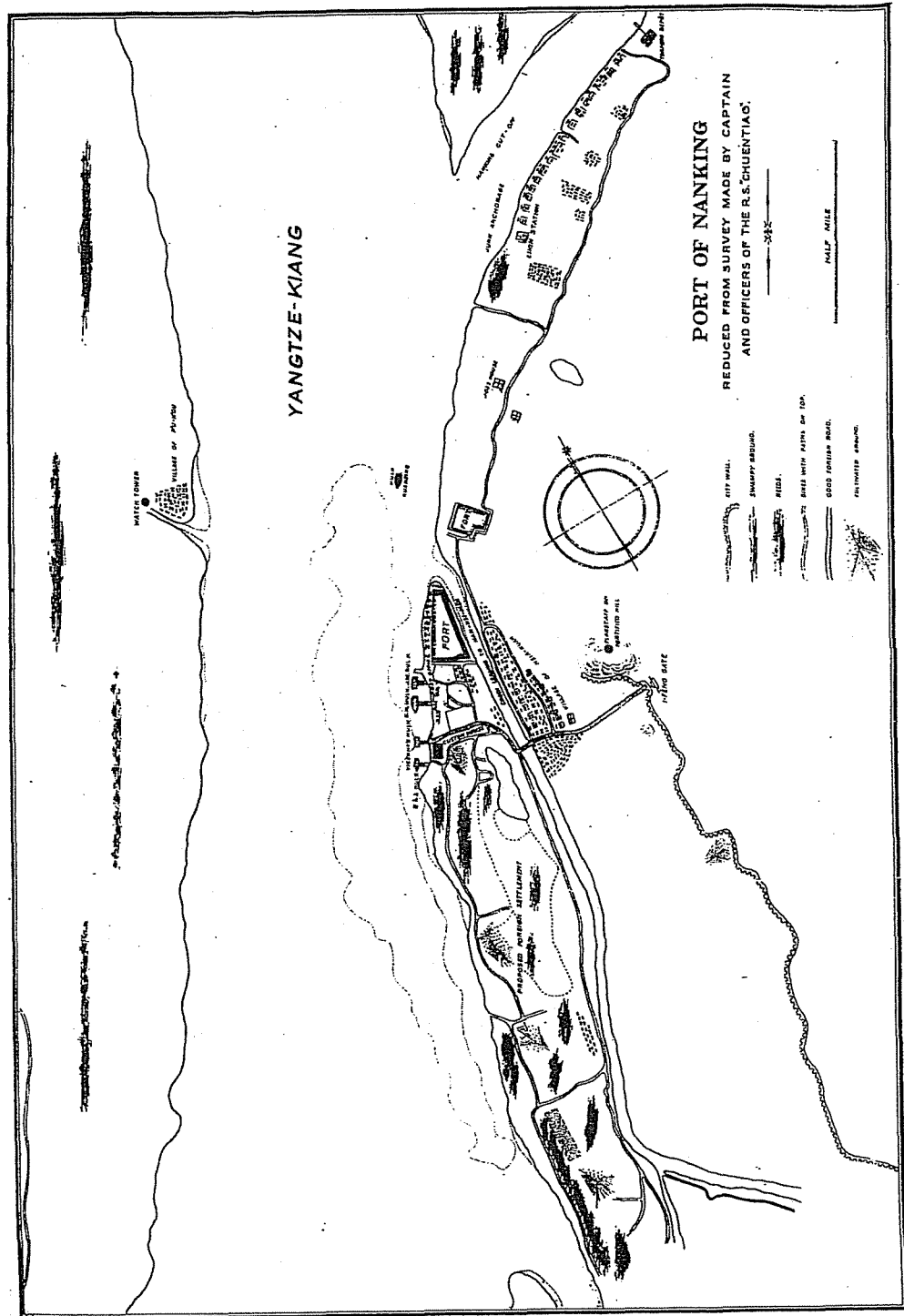
Commissioner of Customs.

CUSTOM HOUSE,
WUHU, 31st December 1901.
18th September 1902.

APPENDIX.

REPRESENTATIVE BUSINESS ESTABLISHMENTS AT WUHU, 1891 AND 1901.

KIND OF BUSINESS.	NUMBER OF ESTABLISHMENTS.	
	1891.	1901.
Rice merchants	12	20
Opium merchants	18	15
Rice shops	(Not known)	57
Exchange banks	13	18
Cash shops	52	70
Retail opium	(Not known)	22
Silk, Foreign piece goods, Native cloth	34	39
Cotton yarn	2
Silk thread and ribbons	16	18
Medicines	12	26
Metals	13	20
Foreign and Cantonese sundries	16	19
Paper and tin-foil	20	35
Tobacco	15	34
Clothing	8	13
Hats, caps, and paper fans	9	13
Boots and shoes	16	30
Chinaware	4	3
Pencils, ink, etc.	7	10
Timber	(Not known)	28
Rice mills	61	90
Flour ..	(Not known)	40
Samshu	15	16
Dyeing	(Not known)	14
Gold and silver smiths	10	19
Oil mills	1	1
Sugar, oil, sandalwood, spices, fishery products, etc.	43	43
Ginseng and birds nests	3	3
Varnish	3	3



NANKING.

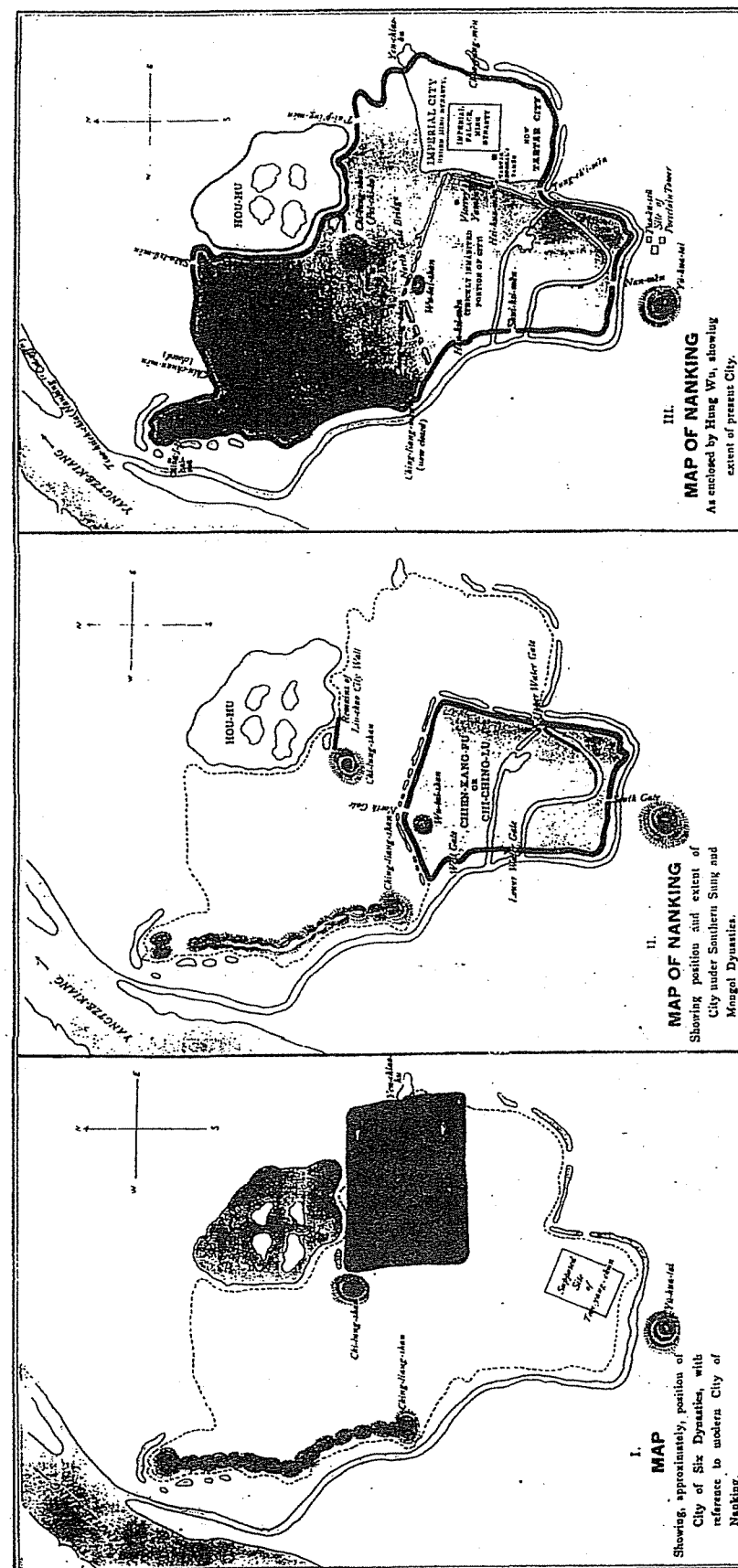
DECENNIAL REPORT, 1892-1901.

(a.) Although Nanking has been a Treaty port for nearly half a century—it was named in the French Treaty of Tientsin of 1858,—it has only been opened to Foreign trade since the spring of 1899. It may, perhaps, be asked why so long an interval should have separated the formal expression of a Treaty right and its fulfilment, especially when it is remembered that, during the last 40 years, the cry has over and over again been for more open ports. But the reasons are not far to seek. It is possible, indeed, that Nanking originally owed its inclusion among the open ports to its having been in the past a place of considerable political importance, rather than to any indication it gave of being a centre from which Foreigners might find it convenient to carry on their trade—certain it is that the course of events did nothing to improve its position in the latter respect. For six years after the signing of the French Treaty the city was still in the hands of the rebels; and when the valley quieted down and trade began to revive, it was found that the two neighbouring ports that were subsequently opened, above and below Nanking, gave all the facilities that were necessary. It is not to be supposed, however, that Nanking remained entirely without a trade in Foreign goods. Situated in one of the richest provinces of China, on the great commercial highway of the Empire, and the head-quarters of the Liang Kiang administration—the largest group of provinces united under the sway of one Viceroy,—the city has ever been a favourite place of abode for numbers of retired and wealthy officials and merchants from other provinces, as the great number of *kung-kuan* testify, and has taken its due share in the consumption of Foreign goods, not only of those articles which have become in the last 50 years almost necessities of life to all classes of society, but of those which are luxuries and only within reach of the well-to-do. But as a distributing centre for Imports, on the one hand, or as an outlet for grain on the other, Nanking does not possess the geographical advantages of Chinkiang or Wuhu, and is not likely to become, to any great extent, the resort of Foreign merchants—unless, indeed, local conditions are entirely modified by the introduction of railways in Central China.

In view of the recent opening of the port to Foreign trade, and as I have no reliable data from which to supply information on many of the specified headings, I have thought it may not be without interest if I utilise the space at my disposal in giving a few historical notes which I have gathered from the records of the city. And, after all, in considering Nanking as a Treaty port, the interest must necessarily centre on the city itself. The province of Kiangsu is singularly rich in open ports, and an inquirer concerning its Foreign trade and native products would naturally go to Shanghai, Chinkiang, or Soochow. But Nanking, tucked away in the north-east

From very early times there appears to have been a city on the site of what is now Nanking, and standing in relation to a certain number of surrounding districts much as, at the present day, Nanking does to the seven districts which make up the Chiang-ning-fu, or prefecture of Chiang-ning. During the period of the Han dynasty, B.C. 206-A.D. 220, this city was called Tan-yang-chün (丹陽郡), from the fact of its being the chief city of the *chün*, as at that time, and ever since the administrative reforms of the First Emperor (始皇帝), B.C. 221, a portion of the Empire corresponding to a modern prefecture was called. At the period we are considering, the Tan-yang-chün comprised, in all, six districts, situated on the south side of the river. The city, which cannot have been of great size, is placed by tradition in the south-east corner of Nanking, within the walls, somewhere between the South and Tung-ch'i Gates.

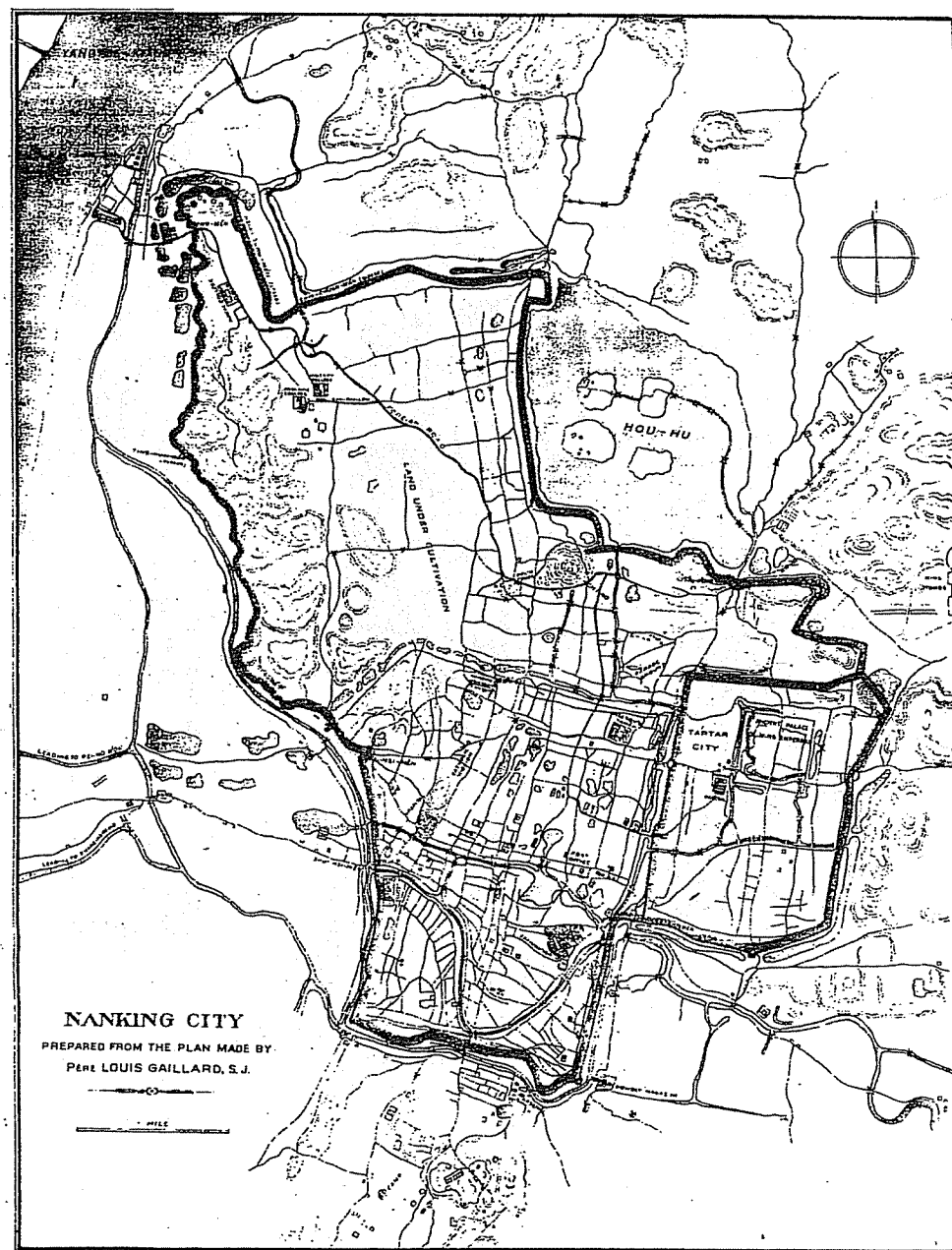
It was in the time of the Three Kingdoms, A.D. 221-77, that Tan-yang-chün became a place of more than local importance, when it was selected as his capital and greatly extended by SUN CH'UAN (孫權), a Prince of the House of Wu. SUN CH'UAN's city was square in shape, and consisted of two portions—an outer or *tu chéng* (都城), for general residence, and an inner or *nei chéng* (內城), reserved for Imperial use. The outer city was not enclosed by a wall, but was surrounded by a bamboo palisade, 20 *li* and 19 paces in circumference, and pierced by 12 gates, four on the north, four on the south, and two on each of the sides. The inner city was enclosed by a brick wall, 6 *li* and 100 paces in circumference, and having eight gates. What is said to be a small portion of this wall is still to be seen, in a remarkably good state of preservation, behind the Chi-lung hill, on which the temple of Pei-chi-ko stands, projecting from the outer and later wall of the Ming dynasty, and it helps to locate with some degree of certainty the position of the city. Within this wall was yet another, 578 *chang* in circumference, and entered by six gates; and right in the centre, and surrounded by a last wall, in which there were four gates, came the Imperial dwellings. The names of all these gates have been handed down; but they were changed many times during the reigns of the successive dynasties which made the city their capital. This period, known as that of the "Liu Ch'ao" (六朝), or Six Dynasties, lasted from A.D. 221-587. The dynasties were the House of Wu (吳), already mentioned; the Eastern Ch'in (東晉); and the first four of what are called the "Nan-pei Ch'ao" (南北朝), the States which ruled this part of China during the epoch of division between North and South, namely, the Sung (宋), the Ch'i (齊), the Liang (梁), and the Ch'en (陳) dynasties. Under the Eastern Ch'in Emperors the city was called Chien-yeh (建業); but the name Tan-yang was reverted to by their successors. A history of Nanking during the period alluded to, which should prove most interesting reading, was promised by the late Père GAILLARD, S.J., than whom no one was more competent to do it justice, and it is to be sincerely hoped that the result of his researches, if they are extant in the shape of notes, will yet be given to the world by the mission which has done so much for Chinese research and has been identified with the city for more than three centuries.



With the rise to power of the House of Sui (隋), A.D. 589-618, the fortunes of the city suffered a temporary decline. The Emperors of that line made their capital at Ch'ang-an (長安), near the present Hsian-fu; and it was probably from motives of policy that in the 9th year of the first Emperor, K'ai HUANG (開皇), the Imperial city of the Six Dynasties was destroyed so completely that, as the records say, the site came under the plough.

The locality does not seem to have been occupied by a city of any pretensions in the time of the succeeding—T'ang (唐)—dynasty, A.D. 618-905, and the Tan-yang-chün was abolished, the neighbourhood of what is now Nanking becoming a district dependent upon Chinkiang. Towards the close of the same dynasty the *chün* was revived, under the name Chiang-ning-chün (江甯郡).

In the period that succeeded the T'ang dynasty, called the "Wu Tai" (五代), or Epoch of the Five Dynasties, A.D. 905-60, it is interesting to note, for the first time, the names Chin-ling-fu (金陵府) and Chiang-ning-fu (江甯府) occurring in the records in connexion with this administrative portion of the country. In the year A.D. 938 an official, HSÜ CHIH-KAO (徐知誥) by name, who had risen to independent power and founded a principality, which he ruled under the dynastic title "Nan T'ang" (南唐), or House of Southern T'ang, built a city which he made his capital, and to which he gave the name Chin-ling-fu. The exact site cannot be located, but there is every reason to suppose that it was within the space enclosed by the present walls. This may be fairly confidently assumed from the fact that there is no record of this place having been destroyed, and that we find a city of considerable importance flourishing under the Southern Sung (南宋) dynasty, A.D. 1127-1260, the position of which can be accurately fixed by the help of the maps that have been handed down. Called at first Chien-kang-fu (建康府), and later, in the time of the Yuan dynasty, Chi-ch'ing-lu (集慶路), it is represented to-day by that part of the modern city of Nanking which is intersected by canals and thickly populated. A glance at the map will show that the present inhabited area is confined to the south part of the city, and is bounded on the north by a canal, which, commencing in a series of ponds (evidently the remains of a former moat), a little to the north-west of the Han-hsi Gate, and skirting a hill called the Wu-tai-shan, flows thence due east and west past the Nanking University and the Viceroy's yamén, until it meets the Tartar city wall, where it takes a turn at right angles, and then flows south to the Tung-ch'i Gate. This waterway formed the northern and western limits of the city until the rise of the Ming dynasty, the wall being carried along the inside of it; from the Tung-ch'i to a short distance beyond the Han-hsi Gate, it followed the course of the present wall, the South Gate of Chien-kang-fu occupying the same position as the Nan-mén of Nanking, and the Upper and Lower Water-gates of the older city corresponding with the existing Tung-ch'i and Shui-hai Mén. The North Gate of Chien-kang-fu was situated not far from the Nanking University, as is indicated by the name North Gate Bridge (北門橋), which has lingered in the locality long after both gate and wall have disappeared. What I take to be a piece of the Sung and Mongol city wall can be seen in the shape of an earthwork, which commences not far from the Han-hsi-mén and runs as far as the Wu-tai-shan, in a north-easterly direction. The facing bricks, if any were used in its construction, would no doubt have been utilised when the later Ming extension was built. The earthwork is similar to that which used to be known at Peking as the Mongol wall, outside the Tartar city. Such were the dimensions of the city from 1127 to



Foreigners who visited the city previous to its occupation by the Taiping rebels carried away such accounts of its splendour, that to the majority of the Western world, to whom the Far East was still a sealed book, it ranked with the Great Wall as one of the wonders, and was sure of a place in any mental vision of the little-known land of China. The ground, outside the South Gate, on which the tower stood had from very early times been consecrated to similar structures. A temple with a pagoda in its grounds, called Chien-ch'u-sai (建初寺), was already ancient at the period of the Three Kingdoms; and it is recorded that both were repaired by the first Emperor of the Wu State, in the 12th year of his reign, about A.D. 241. Under the Western Ch'in dynasty the pagoda was again repaired, and we are told that at this period it was three stories high. Repaired again under the Tang dynasty, both temple and pagoda were finally destroyed by fire during the period of the Mongol rule that preceded the Ming.

When the Emperor YUNG LO, having seized the throne of his nephew CHIEN WÂN, was about to remove his court to Yen-ching (hereafter to be called Peking), he was minded to leave in the capital of his father (henceforward distinguished by the title of Nanking) a fitting tribute to the favours which he had received from that monarch. He therefore issued orders to the Vice-President of the Board of Works to erect a pagoda, on the old site, which should not only eclipse in splendour all its predecessors, but also be unique of its kind. The building was commenced in the 10th year of YUNG LO (1413), and completed, after 19 years of work, in the 6th year of the Emperor HSÜAN TÊ. In attempting to give a description of the tower, I should state that my information is taken from a Chinese record, and is open to the correction of those who have been fortunate enough to see the original. The drawing which accompanies this Report has been made from a Native woodcut. The tower, so runs the description, was 329 feet high, octagonal in shape, and constructed in nine stories, which tapered symmetrically from base to summit. From the roof of the topmost story there rose a graceful spirelike arrangement, stayed to the eight corners by iron chains, to which were attached 72 bells; moreover, from each of the eight hornlike corners of the roof of every story there depended a large bell. The roofs themselves were covered with corrugated copper inlaid with gold, in such a way that the colour was always preserved. The tower was faced with highly glazed tiles, of five different colours—red, blue, green, white, and yellow,—which gave to it its unique appearance of having been built of porcelain. At night the pagoda, on certain festal occasions, would be illuminated by thousands of lamps, and the simultaneous lighting of these gave rise to the popular superstition that they were lit by the agency of fairy foxes. The tower cost nearly 2½ million taels to construct. To ward off evil influences there were deposited in the building a miscellaneous collection of articles, which included rubies, pearls, and other precious stones; a lump of gold weighing 4,000 taels; 1,000 taels of sycee silver; 100 catties of sulphur; 1,000 strings of cash bearing YUNG LO's superscription; two pieces of yellow satin; and copies of various Buddhist sutras. As an instance of China's opposite way of doing things, it may be noted, in passing, that all these articles were stored in or under the roof of the topmost story, instead of, where we should place them, under the foundation stone. The tower was very seriously damaged by fire, on three sides, in the 5th year of CHIA CH'ING (嘉慶), of the reigning dynasty (1800), and was repaired in accordance with the request of the Governor General and Governor, who submitted a joint memorial on the subject. It was destroyed by the Taiping rebels when they took Nanking. At the present day not even a

ruin remains to mark the site where, for four centuries, stood the pride and glory of Nanking. All that is left of the pagoda, besides a few scattered tiles—a bronze cupola that formed part of the spire,—can be seen by the curious who care to visit the Arsenal outside the South Gate.

It was during the reign of WAN LI, one of the later Ming Emperors, that Nanking first admitted the stranger from the West within her gates. In 1595 the celebrated Jesuit missionary MATTEO RICCI visited the city. Refused admittance, he returned in 1598, on his way to Peking, and was well received and hospitably entertained, though he did not, on this occasion even, pass the walls. On his third visit, in 1599, he lodged inside the city, and made arrangements for the permanent establishment of his mission within the then Imperial city, at a spot which has been located not far from the Hung-wu Gate. For details of the history of the mission which has from that day maintained its connexion with Nanking, those interested cannot do better than consult the exhaustive work of the late PÈRE GAILLARD, S.J., "Nankin Port Ouvert."

The southern capital, once deserted, was not again the residence of any of the Emperors who succeeded YUNG LO, and a couple of centuries elapsed before the city became even the temporary resting-place of the "Son of Heaven." At a time when the travels of the Imperial Family have been attracting much attention, both in China and abroad, it is interesting to note that the Emperor K'ANG HSI, of the reigning dynasty, twice visited Nanking in the course of his southern progresses of inspection (*nan hsün*, 南巡). The first occasion was in the 23rd year of his reign (1684), when he entered by the Tung-ch'i Gate, and took up his quarters in the yamén of the Tartar General, within what was formerly the Imperial city. On his second visit, in the 28th year of his reign, he occupied the yamén of the Superintendent of the Imperial silk factory. His footsteps in this direction were followed by his no less celebrated grandson, CH'EN LUNG, who would appear to have found some pleasure in the city, for he stayed in it on no less than five occasions—thrice in company with the Empress Dowager, in the 22nd, 27th, and 30th years of his reign (1758 to 1764), and twice by himself, in his 45th and 49th years. Moreover, he was not content to take up his abode in the yamén of a high official, for he caused a palace, of some size, to be erected for his use, and had it furnished more or less sumptuously. The name Ta-hsing-kung (大行宮), applied to a quarter of the city near the Viceroy's yamén, still marks the site of these buildings, of which nothing is now left.

Under the reigning dynasty the fortunes of Nanking have been varied and, on the whole, not uneventful. The records speak of several manifestations of the forces of nature, in the shape of floods, drought, and earthquakes, while the city has had more than its share of pestilence and famine and the horrors of civil war. In the 19th year of the Emperor CHIA CH'ING (1815) there was a drought which placed 170,000 starving people on the hands of the officials. In the 11th year of TAO KUANG (1832) there was a flood followed by an earthquake. In the 22nd year of the same reign reference is made to the visit of the British fleet with Sir HENRY POTTINGER; and it is recorded that the citizens enrolled themselves voluntarily for the defence of the city and for the maintenance of order. On the appearance of the Foreign ships in the Ts'ao-hsieh-chia (章桂莢), "Nanking Cut-off," the city gates were closed. The visitors occupied the yamén of the Assistant District Magistrate, at Kuan-yin-mên, the site of one of the gates in HUNG WU's outer wall. Brief mention is made of the visit of the Treasurer HUANG K'EN-TING

(黃恩彤) to the ships, for the purpose of allaying alarm, and of the invitation of the Chinese Plenipotentiaries to a banquet on board, which was returned a few days later. The Treaty which had such far-reaching effects on the Foreign relations of China, was signed on the 24th day of the 7th moon of the 22nd year of TAO KUANG (1842), in the Shang-chiang K'ao-p'êng (上江考棚), or Examination Hall for the degree of *hsiu-tsai*; and the fleet, which had come with such hostile intent, was fortunately able to depart leaving the city intact. Before leaving, it is recorded that the Foreigners went to see the sights of the city, including the Porcelain Tower. The 29th year of TAO KUANG (1850) was memorable for a very serious rise of the Yangtze. All the low-lying parts of the city were flooded, the water standing 10 feet deep in the streets, and the inhabitants were forced to encamp on the city wall. The part to the north of the Drum Tower, which is higher, escaped. It is stated that the flood was followed by a pestilence which caused great mortality throughout the city.

It was at the commencement of the reign of the succeeding Emperor, HSIEN FENG, that the greatest calamity which had happened since the destruction of the city of the "Liu Ch'ao" befell Nanking. Already, in the last years of TAO KUANG, the movement had commenced, on the borders of Kwangtung, which was to be known as the Great Rebellion and have such a direful effect on the fortunes of the city. The records show that in the 2nd year of HSIEN FENG (1853) the Governor General of the Liang Kiang, LIU CHIEN-YING (陸建瀛), requested permission to go out against the advancing hordes. He proceeded as far as a place called Lung-ping (龍坪), in Hupeh, before which the rebel junks appeared in the 1st moon of the 3rd year of HSIEN FENG. The expedition proved abortive: the Viceroy retired without fighting, and fled back to Nanking, in a small boat, unaccompanied. The day he arrived, An-ch'ing* fell. Hearing that the rebels were approaching, he appears to have made another attempt to stay the advancing tide, and went out to meet them somewhere in the neighbourhood of Wuhu. But his heart again failed him, for he fell back on Nanking without coming into touch with the enemy. It was now evident that Nanking was the main objective of the rebels, and at the eleventh hour some serious attempt seems to have been made to put the city in a state of defence. To a small pamphlet, entitled "Nanking: a Record of Her Suffering," written by CHANG JU-NAN (張汝南), the father of the head Writer in the Nanking office, who was an eye-witness of, and sufferer by, the events which now befell, I am indebted for some particulars that may have interest to those to whom the Taiping Rebellion is now ancient history.

The writer contrasts the state of the city and the spirit of its inhabitants with what they had been only a short time before, when the walls were threatened by the British fleet, in 1842. Then, inspired by confidence in their Viceroy, NIU CHIEN (牛鑑), the inhabitants had volunteered for the defence, and had at their own cost provided themselves with arms and ammunition, keeping watch and ward with the utmost enthusiasm and zeal; and the writer naively hints that it was owing to this martial spirit of the citizens becoming known that the Foreigners were unwilling to attack the city and the Treaty was concluded. Now all was different. No confidence was felt in the Viceroy, LIU CHIEN-YING; and although the Fantai, CH'U SU-TSAO (祁宿藻), on whom the chief burden of defence seems to have devolved, and who

* In other Reports called "Anking."

was a man of more than ordinary capacity, endeavoured to rally the people, calling on them to emulate their former zeal, his appeal met with little or no response. There being no help for it, and, volunteers or no volunteers, something having to be done to meet a—this time—pressing danger, the Treasurer himself set the example of starting a defence fund, and called upon the leading citizens to invite subscriptions. The city was divided into five wards—north, south, east, west, and middle—and in each was instituted a defence office, with subordinate offices under them. These defence offices were placed under the management of the city gentry, subject to official inspection and control. To each sub-office were supposed to be attached 250 men. There was no heart, however, in the enterprise. The officials kept no proper supervision over the wards or records of those who were enrolled, and the gentry allowed their trust to fall into the hands of men who appropriated the funds for gambling and wine-bibbing, while those who had been enrolled merely attended the muster to draw their pay and rations. As an instance of the poor watch kept, it is related that several hundred refugees from Huai-an-fu were able to pass the South Gate in a body, and penetrate as far as the Chi-lung-shan (Pei-chi-ko), in the vicinity of the Drum Tower, without being questioned, although they had traversed three of the wards established on purpose to give timely notice in such emergencies.

To supplement the force of so-called regular troops available for the defence of the city, the indefatigable Fantai, Ch'i, collected some 8,000 or 9,000 able-bodied peasants, tillers of the soil within the city, and men out of employment, and had them hastily armed, drilled, and billeted in the temples. As a test of strength, each man had to pass an examination in *shih-ku* play, or the manipulation of the heavy bar with stone drums at each end which the Chinese Sandow uses to develop his muscle; and so severe was the test applied that very few succeeded in passing. This, however, did not prevent the ranks from being duly filled, for the lucky few whose muscles had come bravely through the ordeal were in great demand to personate the many who had not the necessary physique. There was scarcely time to instil even the rudiments of discipline into this motley crowd, or induce them to take a serious view of their duties, and it was only after several executions had taken place that obedience became the rule and not the exception. While there was yet time, men were employed to bring up stones and sand on to the wall, and the houses built along its foot were all, on the advice of the Tartar General, removed. Foreseeing a famine—a fear which the short duration of the siege did not in the end justify,—the Treasurer urged the rice merchants to send all the rice that could be procured into the city; but few paid any attention to the summons.

It was just at this time, that is to say, on the 19th of the 1st moon of the 3rd year of HSIEN FENG (1853), that the Viceroy, falling back a second time before the rebels, entered the city, and the general alarm was increased tenfold by his precipitate retreat. Hurried preparations for a general exodus were made, such as had taken place in 1842, when the fall of Chinkiang had given rise to the worst fears for the safety of the city. But proclamations from the Viceroy to the effect that there was no cause for alarm, added to a lively recollection of the many who had succumbed to disease and hardship in the former flight, induced the majority to remain, and only a small per-centage of the population left before the city gates were finally closed and barricaded on the 26th. Shortly before this step was taken, the General commanding the troops which had been posted at the Yu-hua-t'ai (雨花臺), a hill outside the South Gate,

withdrew his whole force inside, leaving, owing to some unaccountable mistake, all his arms, ammunition, and stores behind in a temple, where they afterwards fell into the hands of the enemy. Three days later, on the 29th, the rebel outposts appeared outside the South Gate, and at once set fire to the extensive suburbs that had grown up in that vicinity, so that, as the writer describes it, the night was turned into day.

It was at this juncture that an incident occurred such as was all too rare in the history of the miserable defence. Just outside the South Gate was a place where, at that time, the grain junks were wont to discharge their cargoes, and a great resort for the sturdy coolies and donkey-drivers who were employed in carrying the rice into the city. Some thousands of these men, called locally *mi-pa-shih* (米把式), seeing the rebels firing and looting the grain shops and other buildings, banded together to resist them, and, with sticks and staves and such weapons as they could lay their hands on, made so stout a resistance that they cleared the neighbourhood. Encouraged by their first success, they flocked to the foot of the city wall and begged the guards to throw them down gingals and ammunition, and also to lower some soldiers by ropes, to help them in pursuing the discomfited rebels. The Treasurer, to his credit, was all for acceding to their request, and some Manchu soldiers on guard at that part of the wall were also keen to join in the fray; but a message from the Viceroy, who feared a trap, not only forbade any movement of men or arms, but actually ordered the city guns to open on the wretched *pa-shih*, whose only fault was that they were braver and more enterprising than their betters. This was naturally too much for the poor men—now between two fires,—and they dispersed as quickly as they could.

The enemy soon recovered their lost ground, and succeeded in setting fire to the South Gate. All through this day—the 29th—the attack was hot on the south side of the city, the rebels sending in fiery arrows, which, owing to the height of the wall at this part (between 50 and 60 feet), did little more than fall on the other side, and failed to start a conflagration. In the evening the rebels—still only an advance guard,—baffled in their attempt to effect an entrance, withdrew to the Yu-hua-t'ai, and in order to keep the defence at this part of the city fully occupied while the movement of the main body was made elsewhere, they, under cover of night, set up on the hill some 500 *lo-han*, life-sized figures of the disciples of Buddha, which they had pillaged from a temple close by. In the serried ranks of these lay figures they planted banners and suspended lamps, which, on a given signal, were lit by a few men retained for the purpose—these the while kept up an incessant din with wild shouts and yells. Seen from the distance of the wall, in the uncertain light, this apparently fresh army advancing to the attack was, naturally, too much for the self-control of the Imperial gunners, who, as the rebels had foreseen, kept up a continuous fire all night, which only slackened when the light of the morning of the 1st day of the 2nd moon enabled them to perceive their mistake. In the course of this day a message was sent into the city attached to an arrow, the purport of which was only known to the three persons who read it, namely, the Tartar General, Viceroy, and Treasurer, and they were seen by those nearest to them to change colour.

The advanced posts of the rebels now proceeded to encircle the city, attacking, or pretending to attack, each gate in turn, from the Tung-ch'i-mên on the east to the Shên-tzu-mên on the north-east, in small bodies not exceeding 30 men in each. In the meanwhile the main

body was approaching in junks, through the upper cut-off at Ta-shang-kuan (大勝關). Some of them landed at Shang-hsin-ho (上新河), the firing from the Shui-hsi Gate giving notice of this movement, while the rest proceeded out of the cut-off and came to an anchor opposite Hsia-kuan, the present port of Nanking. Here the greater part of the rebel army disembarked for their main attack, which was to be directed against the I-fêng Gate, by which the Foreign road now enters the city, and occupied as their head-quarters the temple of Ching-hai-sü (靜海寺), in the village of Hsia-kuan. There could be no mistaking the rebel purpose now, or misunderstanding the reason of previous attacks, and as quickly as possible the Tartar General brought over 8,000 men, to reinforce the garrison at the gate, and posted them with guns on the Lion Hill (獅子山).

The investiture of the city was now complete, four days from the first appearance of the rebel outposts, and yet there was no sign of help from the outer world. Once, indeed, at noon on the 3rd of the 2nd moon, hopes were raised by the sound of firing from the direction of the Yangtze. The people crowded the summits of the Chi-lung (Pei-chi-ko) and Ch'ing-liang hills, whence a view of the river could be obtained, and they descried a solitary war junk engaging the rebel forces, shortly followed by a second and a third. Could it be the relief expected from Chinkiang? Such hopes, however, were speedily dashed to the ground, as one by one the war junks were beaten off and no more appeared.

The city now gave itself up for lost. All the messengers lowered over the wall, and sent away by order of the Viceroy to seek for help, had either been intercepted or their courage had failed them and they had not attempted to pass the rebel lines; and recourse was at length had to what we should call counsels of despair. There was living on the Chiu-hua-shan (九華山), in the neighbourhood of Nanking, a Buddhist priest, reputed learned in the art of war; and it was gravely proposed by a graduate of the city that he should be summoned to the rescue—together with the village clan, a few score persons,—when he would surely devise some means of routing the enemy. The proposal met with the Viceroy's approval, and duly accredited messengers were sent out to summon the priest; but they, too, failed either to return or to give any account of themselves. Others, we are told, attributing the enemy's success to supernatural causes, devised a means of striking terror in their ranks. Beside each gun mounted on the wall, between the South and I-fêng Gates, was kept in readiness a paper effigy, 20 feet long, such as is used in funeral processions; each time a gun was fired, this paper man would be raised above the surrounding smoke and waved about, and then lowered again before the smoke had time to disperse.

On the 5th of the moon word was brought that the rebels were undermining the I-fêng Gate, and a constant stream of people was seen from the wall going in and out of the Ching-hai-sü, under cover of a battery which the rebels had erected, evidently with some evil intent. On the morning of the 8th great activity was observed in the rebel force before each of the gates, and the vigilance of the defenders was redoubled. A rumour was current throughout the city, by whom started it was not known, that the place would fall the following day; and the anxiety and suspicion of the inhabitants was still further increased when it became generally known that, throughout the northern part of Nanking, the doors of nearly every house, within a radius of 3 or 4 li, had been marked with mysterious signs—circles in white and red, and

characters representing "heaven" and "great." This could be no other than the work of spies. At dawn on the morning of the 10th the noise of a terrific explosion was heard and a shock felt like that of an earthquake. The miners at the I-fêng Gate had done their work, and soon it was known all over the city that a breach had been made in the wall.

For the two preceding days the attack had been hottest at the South and I-fêng Gates, and the Viceroy, going himself on the wall, had personally superintended the operations. The explosion of the mine opened a breach, about 20 feet wide, immediately below the Lion Hill, through which the rebels swarmed. On gaining the city, they divided into two bands: one made direct for the Drum Tower, following the line of the present road; the other kept along the wall to the Shên-tzû Gate, slaying all with whom they came in contact on the way. Clothed in parti-coloured garments, some with their hair flowing free, others in turbans, and all armed with long white spears—rallying to their leaders to the sound of blasts blown on conchs,—they must have presented a sufficiently terrifying spectacle. The former band, on reaching the Drum Tower, split up, one party occupying the tower, and the other the hill on which the temple of Pei-chi-ko stands. The object of this latter force was the capture of the Tartar city, and a small body of men was sent in the direction of the Tai-p'ing Gate to attempt to take it in the rear. But the rebels had reckoned without their hosts. The Tai-p'ing Gate party met with so stout a resistance from the Manchu soldiers that they fled in disorder back to the hill, hotly pursued by the Tartar braves, whose ranks were quickly joined by householders living near, armed with bamboos, so soon as they saw which way the day was going. Following up their advantage, the Manchus determined to turn the enemy out of the hill. Rushing to the assault from two sides, they quickly gained a footing; and though the rebels made a determined stand in the temple, and called loudly for help to their friends on the Drum Tower, they had to give way before the better armed and more numerous Imperialists, elated with the success they had already gained. Fleeing down the hill, in their endeavour to rejoin their friends, they met with a warm reception from a party of peasants who were waiting for them at the bottom with hoes—a sufficiently deadly weapon in the hands of those accustomed to wield them on the stubborn soil. Meanwhile, the Drum Tower band, seeing what was happening, did not wait to assist their comrades, but speedily made the best of their way back to the breach in the wall, through which they retired, followed by such of the others as had managed to escape with their lives. The pursuing Manchus, who were not strong enough to follow them outside the city, halted at the wall, where they joined all the previously defeated Chinese soldiers who could be got together in hastily repairing the breach with hemp bags filled with mud. The ill success which had attended this first body of invaders put new heart into the garrison; and inhabitants, and officials, and people determined to redouble their efforts to keep the enemy out.

In the meantime it had not fared so well in other parts of the city. Word having reached the Viceroy of the breach in the wall, he started out, accompanied by one military officer and a few attendants, and proceeded first towards the Tartar city, to take counsel of the Tartar General. On the way he seems to have fallen in with a party of rebels—probably those who took the direction of the Shên-tzû Gate on first entering the city. The Viceroy was riding in a green chair with four bearers, and flight was out of the question. The attendants and bearers, seeing the rebels, at once took to their heels; and though the military officer stood gallantly by

the Viceroy, they were both quickly despatched. Bad news, unfortunately, travels fast, and the report that the city had been entered and the Viceroy slain reached the South Gate before it became known that the invaders had been ejected and the breach repaired. It was quite sufficient for the feeble-hearted soldiers on duty there. The able Fantai, who alone, perhaps, could have rallied them, had died shortly before, in a fit brought on by mortification and despair; and they one and all deserted their posts, and were followed by the guards at the Shui-hai and Han-hai Gates. The rebels, finding the wall abandoned, quickly mounted, by means of scaling-ladders, at the South Gate, and running along the top to the other two gates, called to the attackers there to do likewise. It was now well on in the afternoon of the 10th of the 2nd moon, and the rest of the day was occupied by the rebels in clearing away the barricades from the three gates referred to, all whom they could lay hands on being impressed into this service. In the north-eastern quarter of the city, where the events which have just been related were not yet known, the defence was still going on.

At daylight on the morning of the 11th of the moon the enemy commenced to pour into Nanking, by the three gates which had been occupied the previous day, and at once directed their course towards the Tartar city, where it was evident the last stand would be made. They had, besides, a score to wipe off against the Manchus for their plucky action of the day before. The people, who had remarked during the night an ominous silence from the direction of the South and South-west Gates, had now dispersed and shut themselves up in their homes, and the Manchus, who had been the backbone of the defence at the Tai-ping and Chao-yang Gates, had also retired within the walls of the garrison city. It was at this moment that the breach at the I-feng Gate was again opened and the Shên-tzû Gate captured, and two bands of rebels made for the Chi-lung hill—Pei-chi-ko,—to co-operate against the Tartar city on the north-west with the force approaching from the south-west. The fight that now ensued is described as having been bloody in the extreme. The Manchus, who were naturally the object of special detestation on the part of their sanguinary foes, fought with the courage of despair, and the women, too, joined them on the wall and lent a hand with gins and with spear. The slaughter on both sides is said to have been terrific, the rebels eventually gaining the summit of the wall by mounting the heaped up corpses of those who had fallen. The Tartar General and his second in command both fell fighting, and, when all was lost, only some 400 Manchus succeeded in cutting their way out and escaping from Nanking. The women who had not perished in the fighting, to the number of about 4,000, were penned into a corner, near the Chao-yang Gate, and burned alive in the buildings in which they had taken refuge.

With the taking of the Tartar city, the actual fighting may be said to have come to an end; but for a short time afterwards there was a reign of terror throughout Nanking, anyone venturing out of doors being killed on sight. A systematic house-to-house visitation was then commenced, all over the city, in search of loot, and no one on whose premises was found anything that would seem to imply official rank, such as buttons, robes, documents, etc., was spared—such things were, in rebel parlance, *yao* (妖), magical or uncanny, and, as evidence of the old régime, were, with their possessors, to be wiped off the face of the earth. With the entry of the rebel Princes into the city, something like order was re-established, and proclamations were issued, in the name of the "Heavenly Kingdom," to obey the new rulers and all would be well.

But the wretched inhabitants were far too terrified to feel much reassurance in the new order of things, or to respond with alacrity to the imperative summons to worship the new deities imposed on them by the sword, and when, as one of their first acts of administration, the rebel authorities began to divide the sexes into two camps, prohibiting any intercourse between them, except at a distance and under official supervision, their suspicions and terror were intensified. Then there followed, as has so often been the case both before and since in this country, in similar circumstances, a most appalling loss of life from suicide. Whole families destroyed themselves in the course of one night. The wells and canals in every part of the city were choked with corpses of men, women, and children, and those who could not get to water had recourse to the beams and rafters of their houses. Our chronicler asserts that far more perished in this way than at the hands of the rebels, and gives figures that it is difficult to believe are not exaggerated.

So fell Nanking, on the 10th day of the 2nd moon in the 3rd year of HSIEN FANG (March 1853), exactly 12 days from the first appearance of the enemy before the walls, and it is difficult to account for the feebleness of the resistance offered. With ordnance such as the rebels were provided with, HUNG WU's magnificent wall should have kept them out for many a month, had the Chinese troops shown anything like the fight of the small Manchu garrison. The next siege, before the city was retaken, was a very much longer affair. One can only suppose that, up to the last moment, no one in authority believed it possible that Nanking would be attacked, and so the forces were mainly paper levies, and no preparations had been made. The city was unfortunate, too, in having at such a crisis of its fate an incompetent Governor General in command.

During the 11 odd years that Nanking remained the head-quarters of the Taiping so-called Empire, the rebels appear to have made no attempt to extend their administration beyond the walls of the city, and it was one of the weak points of their scheme, which first opened the eyes of the world to the true nature of the mission on which they were engaged, that they showed no signs of providing a government in the districts through which they had passed as a scourge. It is, of course, possible that, had they been successful in their northern expedition, the country might eventually have been consolidated under one or other of the Wangs as Emperor, and history have repeated itself; but for the moment their administrative acts were dictated and limited by the purely military necessities of the situation—want of men to fill the ranks of the various expeditions sent off in all directions, and want of loot as an incentive to take the place of the religious enthusiasm that had undoubtedly inspired the movement. It was to this desire for an unfailing supply of recruits that, I think, must be ascribed their curious system of dividing the sexes, which has been referred to; for the female brigades they formed were not Amazons to be led out to battle, as I have seen it somewhere stated. In forming the women into camps, under responsible women officials, the rebels were, no doubt, to some extent influenced by the idea that they would thus minimise intrigue and lessen the danger of plots; but their main object in breaking up the family life so dear to the Chinese was, I am told, to loosen the ties which bound the young and able-bodied men to home. The women, at the same time, were not left idle, but were employed, under supervision, in different kinds of work for which they were fitted. Similarly, the men who were unfitted for military service were organised according to their several trades and professions, and made to work, in return for eating the "Heavenly

Father's" rice. Of all those who submitted and settled down to life under the new rulers, undoubtedly the educated had the best time. They were styled *shu-shou* (書手), "writing hands," and besides being exempt from military service, they had the advantage of being indispensable to their masters, and were able to attain to positions of some trust and power. This liability to military service was regarded by the people as one of the greatest evils they had to bear under the Taiping rule—and small wonder, when it is remembered that many thousands of Nankingese lost their lives fighting, under compulsion, their own countrymen in the Imperial ranks, both before the city and on the expedition which shortly after the capture of Nanking set out for Yangchow and the Yellow River.

Within 17 days of the taking of Nanking, Imperial troops appeared before the outworks which the Taipings had set up around the walls, and from this time onwards, until its recapture in the 3rd year of T'UNG CHIH (1864), fighting went on at intervals, and with varying fortune to either side. It does not fall within the scope of this Report to give a detailed account of the operations, which finally culminated in the triumph of TS'ENG KUO-FAN; but brief mention may be made of some of the more striking episodes.

The rebel Princes had not long settled down in their capital ere plots began to thicken; and the names of two natives of Nanking who took advantage of the situation—the one in the interests of humanity, and the other to assist the Imperial cause—have been handed down in lasting honour among their countrymen. The first, by name WU FU-CH'ENG (吳復誠), and by profession a silk merchant, had, through some business transactions, struck up a friendship with a rebel minor official called CHANG. As a result of this intimacy, WU was enabled to make himself useful in various ways to the authorities, and came to be regarded by them as a man to be trusted. By WU's advice a number of weaving establishments were started, and placed under his sole control, for the purpose of supplying satin for ceremonial and official use. Under cover of these establishments, WU was able to give shelter to numbers of his distressed countrymen, who came there ostensibly as "hands," and eventually to smuggle them out of the city, the guards at the gate, whose duty it was to keep a tally of all going out and coming in, being bribed with presents of silk not to be too particular about discrepancies in numbers. In this way hundreds of men were able to escape the dreaded military service. And WU also devised a plan to help the women, whose small feet made escape by flight impossible without a boat. Taking advantage of the fact that the women were sent out in gangs from their camps to collect firewood, WU suggested that a saving of time would be effected if boats were provided to bring the fuel into the city. As the boats returned empty, numbers of women and small children, who otherwise could not have managed it, were got away outside the city.

The sole originator of the numerous plots which distinguished the first and second years of the rebel occupation was a man named CHANG CHI-K'ENG (張繼庚), a graduate of the city. The material on which he worked was found in a large number of Hunan and Kwangsi men, who had accompanied the Taiping army to the attack of Nanking on the distinct understanding, as they thought, that they were to be allowed to return home on the capture of the city. Finding, however, that no difference was made between them and the conquered Nankingese, and that, amongst other things, they and their families had to submit to the hateful discipline of the separation of the sexes, they considered their allegiance at an end, and were ready to

join CHANG in his dangerous enterprise. The resourceful WU, moreover, provided men from his weaving establishments. Of all the various arrangements that were made to admit the Imperialist troops to the city, it is sufficient to say that not one was successful. With the exception of one occasion, when a heavy fall of snow prevented those outside from coming up to time, all miscarried through the simple blunder of some subordinate inside the city. A want of clearness about the date (the rebel and Imperial calendar, of course, not being the same)—the drunken gossip of a confederate in a wine shop—and the failure on the part of those concerned to produce the necessary instruments for opening the Chao-yang Gate, on the last and most nearly successful attempt—ruined all Mr. CHANG's ingenious plans. The summary vengeance taken on this last occasion, both on the innocent and on the guilty, when, as the chronicler graphically describes, the streets leading from the South and West Water-gates ran with blood, effectually put a stop to any further attempts in this direction.

From the 3rd to the 8th year of HSIEN FENG (1854 to 1859) intermittent fighting went on round Nanking, the Imperialists having, as a rule, the best of it, and one by one most of the rebel outworks fell into their hands and large numbers of junks were burnt.

The sixth year of the siege witnessed the quarrel between the T'ien Wang, HUNG HSIU-CH'UAN (洪秀泉), and the Tung Wang, YANG HSIU-CH'ING (楊秀清), when the latter plotted to overturn the former and was himself slain at the hands of the Pei Wang, WEI CH'ENG (韋啟). The story goes that the T'ien Wang, alarmed for his supremacy, sent for WEI CH'ENG, who was then fighting in Kiangsi, to come and help him. The Pei Wang had not been altogether successful in his battles, and, in accordance with a rule of the Taipings forbidding entrance to the capital to unsuccessful Generals, was refused admittance, by order of the Tung Wang, who no doubt scented danger. Incensed at this treatment, he forced his way in, and with a large following laid siege to the Tung Wang's palace. Beating down all resistance, he forthwith proceeded to put the Tung Wang and all his family and attendants to the sword. In the midst of the slaughter he received a message from the T'ien Wang, bidding him spare the women and children, to which he paid no attention; and the T'ien Wang, thinking that perhaps the remedy might prove worse than the disease, hastily sent for the I Wang, SHIH TA-KAI (石達開), who was fighting somewhere in Anhwei. The I Wang arrived, and, as was intended by HUNG HSIU-CH'UAN, very soon came to blows with the Pei Wang, in the course of which the latter himself met the fate he had meted out to YANG HSIU-CH'ING.

In the 9th year of HSIEN FENG there was no fighting before Nanking. At the beginning of the 10th year the Imperialists made some headway; but the arrival of the Chung Wang, LI HSIU-CH'ENG (李秀成), by far the most capable of the rebel leaders, completely turned the scales, and the Emperor's forces were beaten back at all points and all the lost ground recovered. The last year of HSIEN FENG was peaceful, as far as the immediate neighbourhood of Nanking was concerned.

The opening year of the Emperor T'UNG CHIH (1862-63) was remarkable for a more vigorous prosecution of the siege, if the rather spasmodic fighting of the preceding years can be dignified by the name of siege, and was coincident with the appearance before Nanking of the forces of the famous TS'ENG KUO-FAN, led by his brother TS'ENG KUO-CH'UAN. In quick

succession the rebel fortified posts at Mo-ling-kuan (棘陵關), Ta-shang-kuan (大勝關), and Shang-hsin-ho (上蕪河) were captured, and the Imperialist army encamped on the Yu-hua-t'ai, the hill outside the South Gate which had already been the scene of rebel exploits. Once again the Chung Wang came flying to the rescue from Soochow, at the head of 40,000 men, and made a supreme effort to surround and annihilate Tsêng's force. The effort failed. The Imperialists stood their ground for 46 days, and finally broke up the encircling force.

Steady progress was maintained during the 2nd year of T'UNG CHIH (1863), and the cordon was drawn tighter and tighter round the city, the road to Chinkiang, from which the Taipings had hitherto drawn their supplies of food, being cut off in the 9th month.

In the 1st moon of the 3rd year the rebel fortress on the Purple Mountain was taken, and the country between the Shên-tzû and Tai-p'ing Gates occupied, thus making the investiture of the city complete. A curious memento of the fighting which took place at this time outside the Tai-p'ing Gate can still be observed by visitors to the Ming tomb. A line of intrenchment cuts the avenue of stone animals at right angles, just avoiding the pair of standing rhinoceroses; in throwing up the earth, the sappers buried one of these monsters to the neck, and so he has ever since remained, with only his head protruding from the ground. By the 5th moon matters were looked upon as desperate by those within the city, and the T'ien Wang committed suicide by swallowing poison. Taking a leaf out of the rebel book, the Imperialists now commenced to mine the wall near the Tai-p'ing Gate, and it was in the course of these preparations that General GORDON visited the works. By the 6th moon (July 1864) all was in readiness: the mine was fired, and a gap 200 feet broad made in the wall. The Brigadier, LI CH'ÊN-TIEN (李臣典), was the first inside and the city speedily won. Thus, twice, in little more than a decade, was Nanking taken by assault and witnessed all the horrors that follow in the train of such proceedings in the East. A clean sweep was naturally made of all the rebel palaces and official buildings—the Viceroy's yamên, which had been used as the abode of the T'ien Wang, being blown up with gunpowder and entirely destroyed. The place of HUNG HSIU-CH'UAN's interment having been pointed out by one of the surviving women of his establishment, the corpse, arrayed in yellow silk brocade, was, by TSÊNG KUO-CH'UAN's orders, taken and publicly burnt. With the execution of the Chung Wang and other rebel leaders who had been captured the following month, the Rebellion, as far as Nanking was concerned, may be said to have come to an end.

The following year (1865) Commissioners sent by the French and British Governments arrived to delimit their respective Settlements; but the outlook was so unpromising that, beyond selecting a site, no further steps were taken towards bringing Nanking into line with the other Treaty ports. The spot chosen was a piece of foreshore between the mouth of the creek leading to the city and the opening of the Straw Shoe Channel (Ts'ao-hsieh Chia, 草鞋夾), which at that time extended up river further than it does now, owing to the gradual washing away of Theodolite Point. It was unquestionably better adapted in many ways to its purpose than the place which has become, by force of circumstances, the port of Nanking, and easy access to the city could have been obtained by reopening the Chin-ch'uan Gate, which had long since fallen into disuse and been closed; but steamers having made it

their practice to discharge passengers opposite the I-fêng Gate, through which the stone road leading from the village of Hsia-kuan to the city passed, and this road having been later, in 1894, converted into a modern macadamised thoroughfare by Viceroy CHANG CHIH-TUNG, the business of the port, when Foreign trade began, naturally centred round the point where the road terminated on the river bank.

In April 1899 the Regulations under which trade had hitherto been conducted on the Yangtze were revised, and the opportunity was considered a fitting one for giving to Nanking the privileges to which it had long been entitled by Treaty. The Custom House was opened on the 1st May.

(b.) The period of two and three-quarter years during which some portion of the trade of Nanking has come within the ken of the Maritime Customs, and for which reliable statistics are available, is too short for purposes of instructive comparison having any bearing on the volume of trade as a whole. The process illustrated by the yearly growing figures representing the value of the trade of the port is one which is going on all over the Empire, wherever the junk is being displaced by the steamer—only circumstances have combined in the case of Nanking, permitted rather late in the day to make use of the steamers that had for years daily passed her gates, to accentuate the change in the channel of communication, and to give it a local significance only possible under similar conditions. With neighbouring ports on either side so close as Chinkiang and Wuhu, it was inevitable that some portion of the river trade of each would gravitate to Nanking; and it was hardly to be supposed that a city of the size and importance of Nanking would continue to import its supplies overland or in slow and cumbersome river junks. Enough progress is exhibited by the figures recorded from May 1899 to December 1901 to warrant the conviction that the opening of the port has been beneficial and was fully justified. The net value of the trade has risen from *Hk.Tls* 2,396,153, for the eight months of 1899, to *Hk.Tls* 4,620,077, for the year 1901.

(c.) The appended table of Dues and Duties collected since the Custom House was opened will illustrate, from another point of view, the change which has been taking place in local trade channels. To a certain extent, the result has been robbery of Peter for the benefit of Paul, and the Imperial Exchequer has gained in revenue at the expense of the provincial treasury. It would be interesting, were statistics obtainable, to compare the receipts of the Hsia-kuan Likin office since May 1899 with the takings of previous years; although I have no figures to offer in this connexion, I am assured that there has been a very decided falling off. As there is no direct Foreign trade with Nanking, and all Foreign Imports, with the exception of Opium, are landed under Exemption Certificate from Shanghai, it was from the outset apparent that the bulk of the Revenue must depend on Opium and Export Duties. To encourage the import of Foreign Opium by steamer—it had hitherto come under Transit Pass, Duty and Likin paid, and the change in the mode of conveyance did not, therefore, prejudice local fiscal interests,—the authorities adopted the Ningpo practice of granting a small rebate of Duty and Likin to the Opium merchants. With the extension of shipping facilities, in the shape of more hulks, the Export Duties have steadily mounted, and the limit has not yet by any means been reached.

The present requirements of the province in the matter of the Transit trade are fully met at Shanghai and Chinkiang, and no development is to be looked for in that direction. Nor until steamer freights are considerably reduced, and a larger measure of the carrying trade in Native Imports diverted from the junks, will there be much expansion under the heading of Coast Trade Duties.

DUES AND DUTIES COLLECTED, 1899-1901.

YEAR.	IMPORT (exclusive of Opium).	EXPORT (exclusive of Opium).	COAST TRADE (exclusive of Opium).	OPIMUM (Import, Ex- port, and Coast Trade).	TONNAGE.	TRANSIT.	OPIMUM LIKEN.	TOTAL.
1899 *.....	Hk. Tm.c.c. 162.3.2.1	Hk. Tm.c.c. 31,939.2.0.7	Hk. Tm.c.c. 5,091.1.3.1	Hk. Tm.c.c. 5,271.4.0.0	Hk. Tm.c.c. 121.8.0.0	Hk. Tm.c.c. 19.2.5.0	Hk. Tm.c.c. 14,048.0.0.0	Hk. Tm.c.c. 56,653.1.0.9
.....	342.2.3.4	56,832.3.5.9	7,657.3.8.9	22,446.8.0.0	378.9.0.0	...	59,792.0.0.0	147,449.6.8.2
.....	3,316.4.5.3	89,848.6.5.6	8,397.0.1.8	27,041.1.0.0	...	202.6.0.4	72,088.0.0.0	200,893.8.3.1
TOTAL.....	3,821.0.0.8	178,620.2.2.2	21,145.5.3.8	54,759.3.0.0	500.7.0.0	221.8.5.4	145,928.0.0.0	404,996.6.2.2

* Eight months.

(d.) The consumption of Foreign Opium is estimated at from 800 to 900 chests per annum in Nanking city and suburbs and the neighbouring villages which draw their supplies from Nanking. There is no evidence that the Opium habit is decreasing—in fact, the numbers of dens which are to be found in all parts of the city, carrying on a most lively business, in the most open way possible, lead one to suppose (and this is confirmed by popular report) that it is, unhappily, gaining ground. The wholesale trade is in the hands of nine large firms, which purchase the Foreign drug from Shanghai, and draw supplies of the Native article from the Hsu-chou prefecture, in this province, and from Szechwan and Yunnan. The crude Opium is retailed by them to smaller establishments, which pass it on to the smoking dens where it is prepared for consumption. There is also a class of shop, called *shu-kuo-tien* (熟膏店), where the prepared article can be procured; but it is somewhat more expensive than that which is purchased on the spot in the Opium dens, and is also liable to be adulterated with sesamum seed and other preparations having much the same smell and colour as Opium. The same large firms alluded to have, of course, provided themselves with a *kung-so* (公所), something between a club and a guild, where twice a month, on the 12th and 25th of each moon, the heads of the business meet together to discuss matters of interest in the trade. The affairs of this institution are managed, for a year at a time, by the heads of the different firms in rotation, and funds are provided by an entrance fee of $\text{T}2$ 50 and a small charge on each chest of Opium sold. The scale of charges, per chest, is as follows:—

	$\text{T}2$
Patna and Benares Opium . . .	0.40 (plus $\text{T}2$ 0.40 for Shensi famine relief).
Malwa Opium	0.30 " " 0.30 " "
Hsu-chou Opium	0.20 " " 0.20 " "
Yunnan and Szechwan Opium .	0.10 " " 0.10 " "

On the meeting days a feast is provided for the members. Opium sold to the small dealers and smoking dens must be paid for within 14 days. Defaulting shops are posted in the *kung-so*, and all supplies cut off till payment is forthcoming.

Previous to the opening of the Custom House, the conveyance of Foreign Opium to Nanking, by junk, was a monopoly granted to a family called WANG by the *kung-so*, and Opium carried for an unassociated firm was liable to confiscation; now, however, all Foreign Opium is steamer-carried, and the former arrangement has lapsed.

Foreign Opium is smoked unmixed by those who can afford to do so; but when purchased in the smoking dens and Prepared Opium shops, it generally contains a mixture of the Native drug. The average annual consumption of Malwa in Nanking is estimated at about 750 chests, and the price varies from $\text{T}2$ 710 to $\text{T}2$ 730 per chest, according to age and quality. The consumption of Patna and Benares is comparatively small, only reaching a little over 100 chests per annum, and the average price is about $\text{T}2$ 750 per chest. Prepared Opium can be purchased locally at the rate of \$1 per ounce (or tael) of Patna and Benares, and \$1 per $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of Malwa.

Nanking draws its supplies of Native Opium from Szechwan, Yunnan, and the home province; the three kinds are known in the market as *Chuan-tu* (川土), *Yün-tu* (雲土), and *Hsi-tu* (西土), and included under the latter term is a certain quantity from Honan and Anhwei. The extent to which extra-provincial Opium is consumed depends, of course, a good deal on the nature of the crop produced in the Hsu-chou prefecture; the quality of the latter is sufficiently good to enable it to hold its own with its rivals, and provided that the supply is equal to the demand, its lower cost, owing to the nearness of the place of production, secures for it first place in the local market. I have, unfortunately, no statistics to prove how much Native Opium has gained ground in the last decade in Nanking; but, from being practically unknown in 1867, it has caught up and passed its Foreign rival, and its consumption exceeds that of Foreign Opium by some hundreds of piculs every year. No serious attempt is made to cultivate Opium in the city and neighbourhood of Nanking, though occasionally an experimental field or two of poppies is to be seen. The annual consumption of Native Opium in Nanking may be placed somewhere between 1,000 and 1,500 piculs, of which, in a normal year, about 50 per cent. would be drawn from Hsu-chou, 42 per cent. from Szechwan, and the balance, 8 per cent., from Yunnan. *Hsi-tu* costs, on the average, about $\text{T}2$ 320 per chest of 2,000 *liang* (or 1.25 piculs); *Chuan-tu*, $\text{T}2$ 200 per chest of 1,000 *liang* (or 0.62 piculs); and *Yün-tu*, $\text{T}2$ 331 per chest containing about 90 catties. The Opium trade uses sycee of a particular touch, called *erh-sei-pao* (二四寶), which is 0.6 per cent. below the local, or *erh-ch'i-pao* (二七寶), tael.

The serious cultivation of Native Opium in this province is confined to a narrow strip of country in the north-west, between Anhwei and Shantung, comprising the prefecture of Hsu-chou—at one time the bed of the Yellow River, the soil has here been found to be particularly favourable to the growth of the poppy. The plant has in recent years invaded the neighbouring department of Hai-chou, and it is found cultivated in appreciable quantities in the

districts of Tao-yuan (桃源) and An-tung (安東), in the Huai-an prefecture. For administrative purposes, it is all treated as Hsu-chou Opium, and comes under the control of the head taxing office established at Hsu-chou-fu. The output of Hsu-chou Opium may be reckoned at anything between 10,000 and 15,000 piculs a year, and, with the exception of what goes clandestinely over the border into Anhwei and Shantung, it is, I believe, all consumed in the province. Previous to 1901 the crop had for many years been described as a failure. The figures which I give below, with all reserve, anything like accurate statistics being unobtainable, profess to represent the output during the years 1891 to 1900:—

	Piculs.		Piculs.
1891.	5,500	1896.	4,000
1892.	6,000	1897.	10,000
1893.	6,000	1898.	6,000
1894.	5,000	1899.	4,000
1895.	9,000	1900.	2,000

1901 was a better year than usual, and the consumption of Hsi-t'u in Nanking is said to have been some 625 piculs.

The Opium is conveyed to the city either by way of the Grand Canal and Chinkiang, or by land route to Pu-k'ou (浦口), on the opposite side of the river, in which case it is entrusted for safety to the Hsu-chou convoy office (護局). A tax of Tta 30 per picul, paid at the place of production, frees the Opium for circulation throughout the province, unless it be steamer-carried, when it comes under other regulations. The whole question of taxation was made the subject of some reforms introduced in 1891, when a head office was established at Hsu-chou-fu, with sub-offices in seven of the subordinate districts and also in the department of Hai-chou and in the two districts of Huai-an-fu referred to. By collecting the full amount of tax leviable at the place of production, by confining the trade in Opium to a few licensed firms which were required to register at the head office, and by maintaining a strict *visé* of all Opium passing Ching-chiang-p'u and Huai-an-fu on the Grand Canal, it was hoped that a stop would be put to the serious leakage which had long been evident in the receipts. It is doubtful, however, whether any measure short of a special tax on Opium-cultivated land, or a tax on the crop previous to its removal from the ground, can be really efficacious. Both have, I believe, been considered, and put aside as impracticable, owing to the opposition they would provoke on the part of the growers, who are people of small holdings and slender means, and who grow Opium in their fields simply because they find it a more profitable crop than Wheat or other cereals. Moreover, under present conditions, a certain amount can be retained for local consumption free of taxation.

The best Hsu-chou Opium is said to come from Tang-shan-hsien (湯山縣)—hence it is sometimes spoken of generally as *Tang-shan-t'u*,—and is prepared for the market in the form of cakes (*pao*, 包); an inferior quality, in the form of a paste, contained in jars, is known as *chiang* (漿).

(c.)

(f.) VALUES.—The following table, for eight months of 1899 and for the two whole years 1900 and 1901, shows that the balance of trade has been fairly even, but that the tendency is for it to incline in favour of Exports:—

	1899.*	1900.	1901.	TOTAL: 1899-1901.
	Hk. Tta	Hk. Tta	Hk. Tta	Hk. Tta
Net Foreign Imports, market value.....	619,333	1,439,370	1,799,646	3,858,349
" Native " " "	382,278	718,941	628,834	1,730,053
Net Imports	1,001,611	2,158,311	2,428,480	5,588,402
Deduct Duties and Likin paid at Nanking.....	24,573	90,238	110,837	225,648
Net Imports, minus Duty.....	977,038	2,068,073	2,317,643	5,362,754
Deduct 7 per cent. for importers profit, etc.	68,393	144,765	162,235	375,393
Imports: value at moment of landing.....	908,645	1,923,308	2,155,408	4,987,361
Original Exports, market value.....	1,394,542	1,710,284	2,191,597	5,296,423
Add Duty paid at Nanking.....	31,939	56,832	89,854	178,625
Exports, plus Duty.....	1,426,481	1,767,116	2,281,451	5,475,048
Add 8 per cent. on market value for exporters profit, etc. ..	111,563	136,823	182,516	430,902
Exports: value at moment of shipment.....	1,538,044	1,903,939	2,463,967	5,905,950

* Eight months.

(g.)

(h.) Mention has already been made of the Foreign road (馬路), of which Nanking is justly proud. Commencing at the river bank, it crosses the creek running past the village of Hsia-kuan by means of a swing-bridge, and enters the city through the I-feng Gate; thence it follows the old stone road, which it displaced, as far as the Drum Tower, and, skirting the Chi-lung-shan, is continued past the Viceroy's yamen to the boundary of the Tartar city, coming to an end at the Tung-ch'i Gate. Previous to its construction, communication with the city was slow and uncertain, whether by land along the aforesaid stone road or by water to the Han-hsi Gate. The new road was commenced in the year 1894, during his temporary incumbency of the Liang Kiang viceroyalty, by His Excellency CHANG CHIH-TUNG, and it will always be associated with his tenure of office. Another name to be gratefully remembered in connexion with this road is that of the popular General commanding the local troops, YANG CHIN-LUNG (楊金龍), to whom we owe the rows of willow trees that line its entire length on both sides and provide so welcome a shade in summer. The advantages of the innovation were not long in making themselves felt, and soon there was something like competition on the part of government offices and busy centres to get access to the road. A small branch was at first constructed from the San-pai-lou to the Military College. In 1899 the Ta-hsin-kung and Hsi-hua Gate were connected, by a branch road leading to

the gate of the Viceroy's yamên. In 1900 the Acting Viceroy, LU CH'UAN-LIN (鹿傳霖), sanctioned two extensions, one from the Hua-pai-lou to the Examination Hall, and the other from the Foreign Office to the Han-hsi Gate; owing, however, to the outbreak of the Boxer movement, only the former was carried out. In 1901 the Fantai's yamên was connected with the trunk road, by means of a branch *via* the Shên-ping-chiao and Nei-chiao. The carriage way of the main road has a width of from 20 to 30 feet; but the branches are in places very contracted, owing to houses on both sides which could not be removed. The roads are adapted to jinricsha and light carriage traffic only, and the construction is not very costly. By the end of the next decade I should say there will be few places in the city to which access cannot be had by good roads.

The construction and maintenance of the *ma-lu* are in the hands of the local Board of Works (商務局), and military labour is employed upon them. Funds are obtained from jinricsha and carriage license fees. The policy, at present, appears to be to push on construction at the expense of the upkeep of the existing roads, for repairs are neither as frequent nor as thorough as they might be. No systematic attempt at lighting has yet been made, though here and there, at cross roads, one or two lamps are to be found. Police stations are placed at intervals along the road; but I cannot find that any regulations, which are becoming more and more necessary as traffic increases, are enforced. A strict rule of the road and a regulation compelling jinricsha coolies to carry a light at night are the most pressing needs at the moment. There are now 2,000 licensed jinricshas in the city and about 30 carriages. The license fee for the former has recently been raised from \$0.80 to \$1 per month.

(i.) and (j).

(k.) The most serious accident that has occurred in Nanking in recent years was the explosion, on the 30th October 1900, of a magazine containing several hundred tons of gun-powder. The magazine was situated in the north-western part of the city, close to the temple Ku-ning-an (古甯庵), and was struck by lightning during a very severe thunderstorm which passed over the city. Both temple and surrounding buildings suffered severely, and it is supposed that altogether about 40 people lost their lives. One poor fellow, who had gone down to Hsia-kuan in the morning with market produce, returned in the evening to find himself the sole surviving member of his family. Medical assistance was promptly rendered from H.B.M.S. *Bonaventure*, then lying in the river; and the Viceroy provided funds for the rebuilding of the ruined cottages. The effect of the explosion on the vegetation in the vicinity of the site was remarkable; the hillsides, which had been thickly covered with trees, were in a moment swept completely bare. A searching inquiry, after the accident, revealed the fact that very few of the magazines in the city were provided with lightning conductors.

Considerable distress was caused locally by the abnormal rise of the Yangtze in 1901, though the effects were not so disastrous as higher up the river. The price of food and fuel rose considerably, and recourse was had to the plan adopted in 1898—when a sudden rise in the price of rice had led to the pillaging of many of the grain shops,—of establishing, under official auspices, *p'ing-tiao-chü* (平糶局), offices for the selling of grain at cost price.

(l.)

(m.) I have not been able to obtain reliable particulars of the number of high degrees won by the province during the period under review; but of the inhabitants of Nanking who competed at the metropolitan examinations (會試), eight, altogether, obtained the coveted *chin-shih* degree. Of these, three were successful at the Palace examination (殿試) and were admitted to the Hanlin degree.

(n.)

(o.) The number of *hsiu-ts'ai* allowed to the province is 1,779; this total does not include bought degrees, or those conferred by special act of Imperial clemency at the instance of the Viceroy. The fixed number of graduateships (定額) for the prefecture of Chiang-ning-fu is 190, made up as follows:—

Prefectural city (extra degrees allowed on account of prefec-	
tural educational authorities (府學), contributed from	
all seven districts of the prefecture)	25
Li-shui-hsien (溧水縣)	20
Shang-yüan-hsien (上元縣)	30
Chiang-p'u-hsien (江浦縣)	16
Chiang-ning-hsien (江甯縣)	30
Liu-ho-hsien (六合縣)	24
Chu-yung-hsien (句容縣)	25
Kao-shun-hsien (高淳縣)	20

The number of *chü-jên* (舉人) allowed to the province is 88—that is to say, six-tenths of the total number of degrees allotted at the provincial examination (鄉試) for the two provinces Anhwei and Kiangsu.

The population of Nanking city and suburbs, including the Manchu garrison, I estimate at about 270,000. According to such official statistics as can be procured, the number of females is about 107,000. Of the male portion of the population, the proportion of those who can read a little is said to be 30 per cent., but not more than 10 per cent. have any intimate knowledge of letters; of the female population, it is supposed that 1 per cent. only can read. Although there is yet no attempt to introduce any system of female education, outside the Foreign missionary organisations, there is reason to suppose that broader views on the subject are beginning to prevail. In the families of the well-to-do, who can afford to invite a teacher to their houses, the female children are allowed, up to a certain age, to share to some extent in the studies, and now and then a sister entrusted with the care of a younger brother to and from the local school may be able to pick up a smattering of characters; but so soon as a girl becomes old enough to perform household work, or, if she belong to the peasant class, to assist in the fields, her opportunities of acquiring knowledge are at an end.

(p.) Nanking is situated on the Yangtze, 205 miles from Shanghai, in latitude 32° 3' 41" (Pei-chi-ko). The position of the city is admirably adapted to the part it has had to play in the history of the country. Surrounded on all sides, except the west, by hills, and protected on that side by forts on small hills which command the river, it is both easy of access to trade and

capable of defence. The southern part of the city, which is thickly built over, is considerably lower than the more recently enclosed northern division; the latter is now almost entirely given up to cultivation. There are signs, indeed, that it was at one time much less thinly populated, and those who recollect the city in its pre-Rebellion days tell me that it was covered with houses. The course of important thoroughfares which have since disappeared is still indicated by many broad stone bridges set in the midst of fields, and the gates to which they at one time led have been bricked up. The soil is fertile, and excellent crops of wheat, beans, peas, Indian corn, sunflowers, and all kinds of market garden produce are raised inside the city. Rice is extensively cultivated on the low-lying ground between the city and the river. The peasantry appear well-to-do and contented. During the winter months, when there is little doing in the fields, they supplement their earnings by working at their looms.

The manufacture of satin, velvet, fancy coloured ribbons, and other silk piece goods is an old-established and the principal industry of Nanking. It gives employment to large numbers of men, women, and children; and the products of the looms have a ready sale in different parts of the Empire, and particularly in the North. The industry received a blow at the time of the Rebellion from which it has never recovered, many of the skilled hands having left the city for other parts of the province, never to return. A considerable quantity of raw silk is produced in and around Nanking, which is used in the manufacture of silk and satin ribbons, and for the woof of satin and velvet; but the warp of the latter products is invariably composed of the finer quality of silk grown in Chehkiang.

Supplies of the raw material are obtained chiefly from Hsia-shih-chên (歙石鎮), in the department of Hai-ning (海甯), and it can be laid down at from \$40 to \$20 per 100 taels. It is purchased Duty and Likin paid from the Chehkiang guilds, which farm the taxes, and is protected to its destination by *tung-chuan* (統捐) documents. The process of converting the raw material into the finished article may be divided into three stages—spinning, dyeing, and weaving. The silk, on arrival, if from Chehkiang, is given out to what are called *pai-hang* (白行), or spinning establishments. Here it is reeled on to small spools—*ting-tzu* (錠子),—by women and young girls, who use hand-wheels for the purpose. The *ting-tzu*, when complete, are then placed in a larger and more complicated machine, to the number of some 12 or 15, and the silk from them is spun into thread. This process is called *shang-hsiao* (上綃). The machine, which is most ingeniously contrived out of bamboo with leather fastenings, is worked by a large fly-wheel turned by one man or boy. After the silk has been spun to the required number of counts, it is taken off the frames and sent to the dyeing establishments. 50,000 feet of silk thread are reckoned as one *tzü* (子), and 100 *tzü* make a *tsu* (組) weighing 220 taels. The cost of spinning is said to be 28 per *tsu*.

In the dyeing shops the colours most used are black (元色) and plum colour (天青). After being dyed and bleached, the silk is re-reeled by women; and is then handed over to a special set of craftsmen, termed *chien-ching-ti* (牽經的), whose sole business is to prepare the warp and set it on the loom. This process is called *shang-ching* (上經). Should by chance the threads become broken, or require to be renewed, the *chien-ching-ti* must be called in again. In the meanwhile, the silk for the woof, which need not necessarily come from Chehkiang, and

which costs about \$30 per 100 taels, has also gone through a spinning and dyeing process. It is then re-reeled by woman, and transferred to small spools—*wei-kuan* (緯管),—which are placed inside the shuttle (梭子), and is then ready for the weaver.

Sometimes as many as four looms may be found in one establishment, and it is not unusual to find spinning and weaving going on within the same compound. These larger establishments, called *chi-fung* (機房), are the result of combination, and represent a considerable capital. They own an extensive plant, and purchase and work up their own material, disposing of the finished product to the dealer under a particular chop. They stand in much the same relation to the poorer class of weavers as the factories in Great Britain did to the cottage looms which they superseded. In Nanking the weaver who has no capital simply works for hire. If he is not the possessor of a loom, he obtains employment at one or other of the *chi-fang* alluded to, getting, besides his keep, a wage of from \$0.75 to \$3.50 per piece, according to the weight of the satin upon which he is employed. The weaver who possesses a loom of his own, but who has not the necessary capital to provide himself with raw material, is dependent on what are called *chang-fang* (帳房). These establishments supply silk, and defray the cost of spinning, dyeing, and setting it up. An accurate account (帳) is kept of all material given out and expenditure incurred, and, on return of the corresponding amount of satin, the weaver is paid at the following rates:—

COLOUR.	Quality.	Warp in Threads.	Length, per Piece.	Breadth, per Piece.	Weight, per Piece.	Weaver's Wage, per Piece.	Selling Price, per Piece.
Plum (天青)...	1st	16,000	40 feet	27-28 inches	Ounces. 60	\$ 8	25-26
	2nd	13,000	"	"	50	7	18
	3rd	10,000	37-38 feet	27 inches	40	6	15
	4th (起碼)	7,000 to 8,000	36 feet	"	30	5	12
Black (元色)...	1st (正頭)	18,000	40 feet 8 inches	3 feet 2 inches	90	8	30
	" (副頭)	15,000	40 feet	3 feet	80	7	20
	2nd	13,000	"	2 feet 7 inches	60	6	16
	3rd	10,000	38 feet	"	50	5	10
	4th (起碼)	7,000 to 8,000	36 feet	"	40	4	8

In addition to the looms which manufacture for the trade, there are a certain fixed number, under official control, engaged in turning out silk, satin, and velvet for the Court. The owners of these looms hold licenses (牌) from the Imperial Silk Commissioner, which they can, if they please, sublet to others. In times of great pressure, such as an approaching Imperial Jubilee creates, work is also given out to private looms. The number of license-holders in Nanking is 294. Previous to the Rebellion there were said to be 35,000 looms inside the city and 15,000 in the villages around employed in the manufacture of ordinary black and plum-coloured satin; writing in 1880, from Chinkiang, Mr. KLEINWÄCHTER states that there were at that time only 4,000 inside the city and 1,000 in the neighbouring villages; at the present time an authority informs me that there are about 3,000 looms in

Nanking and some 2,000 outside the city. The annual production is estimated at 150,000 pieces, valued at *Hk.Tā* 2,500,000, of which the North is the largest consumer.

The manufacture of other varieties of satin piece goods has been steadily declining of late years. Before the Rebellion over 2,500 looms were at work weaving "Mo-pên," a variety made in two qualities and in all colours; in 1880 there were but 300 looms so employed, and the number has now diminished to about 50. The annual production is 1,200 pieces, valued at *Hk.Tā* 34,000. The weaving of "Chuang-hua" (粧花)—gold figured satin—is now confined to about 30 looms, compared with 1,000 before the Rebellion and 300 in 1880. The yearly production amounts to about 10,800 feet, valued at *Hk.Tā* 12,240. This variety is almost entirely made to order for the North. The pieces vary in length up to 6 *chang*, and are from 2 to 3 feet in width. The wholesale price is about \$1.70 per foot. "Veda's Gold" (韋陀金), a kind of damask interwoven with gold thread, is manufactured on the same looms as the "Chuang-hua." Each piece is 18 feet long and 2 feet 2 inches wide. The price per foot varies from \$1 to \$2. The annual output is about 720 pieces.

The prevailing fashion of wearing velvet caps, coats (馬褂), shoes, etc., has led to an increase in the number of looms weaving velvet since 1880, and there are now about 700 employed, in and outside the city, manufacturing the plain (建絨) and figured (天蟬絨) varieties; in the good days before the Nanking trade was ruined there were something like 7,000 employed. Each piece is 20 feet long by 1 foot 8 inches wide, and varies in price from *Hk.Tā* 0.50 to *Hk.Tā* 1.20 per foot.

The local manufacture of pongees (綢) has fallen off greatly, not more than 200 looms being engaged, compared with 700 (the figure given by Mr. KLEINWÄCHTER) in 1880. On the other hand, there is great activity in the silk and satin ribbon trade. Previous to the Rebellion this manufacture was hardly known in Nanking; but the number of looms has increased from 3,000 in 1880 to 6,000 at the time of writing. The ribbon looms give employment to large numbers of women and small girls, and as pedalling plays an important part in supplying the necessary motive power, they find in this perhaps the only active occupation in which they are not at a serious disadvantage by reason of their bound feet. The ribbons are woven in a great variety of colours and patterns, the setting up of which is a distinct trade confined to a few skilled workers, and vary in width between 2 inches and three-tenths of an inch.

The weaving of cloth from unbleached cotton, at one time an important enough industry in Nanking for the particular kind of texture produced to be known over the world as "nankeen," did not survive the Rebellion. Very few looms are now at work; and the industry has permanently located itself at Tungchow, in this province, nearer to the great cotton-growing districts.

Among minor commodities from Nanking which enjoy a reputation in other parts of the Empire may be mentioned salted ducks. Vast flocks of birds are reared in the country round, and the duck market outside the Shui-hsi Gate, on a busy day, is a sight worth seeing—and hearing.

(q.) A list of the different classes of Native shipping employed in the junk trade of Nanking is given at the end of this Report (see Appendix). It will be seen that a distinction is

made between sea-going and inland-water craft. Since the opening of the port to trade, and the increase of steamer traffic on the river, the tendency has been for the former class, never very numerous, to diminish. Now and again a Ningpo "papico" (甯波刁子) is to be seen in the creek, and occasionally a southern junk; but the cargoes of sugar and kerosene oil at one time brought up by the latter now arrive in steamers and lorchas. A local authority estimates the number of sea-going junks that arrive in a year at about 100. It is different with the river craft, and the day is yet distant when they will be run off the Yangtze. Nanking still does a considerable Native trade with places in the valley not yet accessible to steamers, and the latter, moreover, do not yet carry all the Native produce that arrives from Treaty ports. No less than 35 distinct varieties of cargo-carrying river craft are known to the initiated, of which five come from the province of Hunan, three from Kiangsi, five from Anhwei, and the remaining 21, mostly boats of small burden, from the home province. The salt junks, which have the largest carrying capacity of any, merely stop for examination purposes at the viséing station at the mouth of the Nanking Cut-off, on their way from Shih-érh-wei (十二圩) to Wusueh and Hankow. The most curious-shaped boats are those from the Poyang Lake, called locally *hung-heiu-hsieh* (紅船), because they are thought to resemble a shoe; exceedingly narrow in the bow, they bulge out abaft the mast in a balloonlike manner, and look as if they could take a big cargo on a shallow draught. A type of boat which is exceedingly common in our anchorage is the *ya-shao-tzū* (桡梢子), from Hunan; these boats bring supplies of coal and fuel.

In connexion with the Native shipping trade, mention should be made of the life-boats (紅船) maintained by the Nanking Life-saving Station (金陵救生局). There are, altogether, 25 of these useful craft in commission at the different stations under the city head office. The boats are well built of pine-wood, carry two masts with sails, and lee-boards in lieu of a keel. They are well found and well manned, and make good weather in a rough sea. The space at my disposal does not allow me to enlarge on this topic, which was exhaustively treated in a paper published at the Statistical Department, by order of the Inspector General, in 1893, entitled "Chinese Life-boats, etc."*

(r.) The following section on Native banks has been written for me by Mr. R. F. C. HEDGELAND, of the Customs staff.

Of the numerous so-called banks in the city of Nanking, there are only some 15 fairly large establishments to which the name can be properly applied; for the majority of these so-called banking institutions, consisting merely of cash shops, and numbering between 600 and 800, confine their business to the exchanging of copper cash and dollars. Such cash shops are started on a capital of from *Tā* 200 to *Tā* 300.

The banks proper, numbering, as has been said, about 15 in all, are situated in the Yung-chang-chieh (綏莊街), inside the city. The Haikwan Bank—Yuan Ch'eng (源成)—situated behind the Custom House at Hsia-kuan, is a branch of one of these, and is entrusted by the Superintendent with the task of collecting the Customs Dues and Duties, which it in return remits to the Superintendent every week. For doing so it receives a fixed sum of *Tā* 78 per month.

* II.—Special Series: No. 18.

These banks would appear to be started by the more enterprising and wealthier classes, and, with few exceptions, to have little or no connexion with the official classes. By them interest is allowed on private funds at 4 per cent.; money is lent out at interest at 12 per cent. and also used for speculation. Employment in these banks can be obtained by a recommendation from hong of good standing or individuals of wealth and social position. A person on so entering receives no salary whatsoever; but later on, when conversant with the business, receives pay at the rate of about \$3 per month, which sum is gradually increased till it reaches \$15 or \$20. The capital of these banks varies considerably, that of the largest ones ranging from T\$ 10,000 to T\$ 100,000, and that of the smaller ones, from T\$ 1,000 to T\$ 10,000. The larger banks have their agencies in other ports, for the purpose of remitting sums of money; and the rate charged for a draft varies, according to the distance, from T\$ 2 to T\$ 20 per T\$ 1,000. Such drafts are payable at from five to 10 days sight. The touch of the sycee in use is high, and is determined by a Kung Ku Chü (公估局), or Assay Office, situated in the Kung-chien-fang (弓箭坊) street. The cost of the upkeep of this establishment is about \$500 per annum, and is met by subscriptions from the various banks, which pay 20 cash on every shoe or *yilan-pao* of 50 taels. The staff of a large bank numbers about 40, and consists of a manager (by whom the accounts are audited yearly), accountants, apprentices (學生), etc.

The Likin stations remit their revenue to the Kung Yu Bank (公裕)—situated in the Fang-k'ou-chieh (坊口街), the most important street in the city,—which is controlled by the Commissioner of the Likin Bureau.

The daily rate of exchange is fixed by the Ch'ien Yeh Kung-so (錢業公所), the banks being informed of the state of the money market by messengers sent daily.

The dollars that are accepted here are the Spanish (本洋), Kiangnan (江南龍洋)—minted at the local Mint,—Mexican (墨洋), and Hupeh (湖北龍洋). The Kiangnan and Hupeh dollars are received and exchanged at par, but both are at a discount compared with the Mexican of from 5 to 10 cash. Thus, though a Native may get a similar number of cash for a Mexican and Kiangnan dollar, yet if he wishes to exchange the latter for the former, in any great number, he will invariably have to pay up a few cash for each Mexican he receives.

The depreciation in the value of silver has been followed by a corresponding fall in the exchange of copper cash.

In 1892 the Nanking tael exchanged for 1,500 to 1,600 cash, whereas in 1901 it only fetched 1,200 or 1,300 cash.

The Haikwan tael exchanges into about 1,415 cash; and the Mexican dollar into 915 cash, or ten 10-cent pieces and about 40 cash.

The fixed rate of exchange between the Nanking tael (清平二七銀) and Haikwan tael is *Nanking T\$ 104.68.1 = Hk.T\$ 100*; and for *Hk.T\$ 100* the Customs banker gives \$152.40.

(a.) There are 17 Native postal hong at Nanking, all of which have branches at each of the river ports, and the more important ones at the principal coast ports. The postage varies for the different ports, according to distances, and is paid one-half by the sender and one-half

by the receiver. Banks and larger shops have special facilities, paying a monthly sum, whereby they are able to send their letters at so cheap a rate that the Imperial Post Office cannot compete.

(t.) and (u.)

(v.) MISSIONS IN NANKING.—Long before the official opening of the port to trade, Nanking had attracted the attention of various missionary societies as a promising field of work. I have already alluded to the establishment of the Jesuit Mission, in 1599, by MATTEO RICCI. First in the field by two centuries, and nursed with the patient care and attention to detail which forms such a characteristic of the society's administration, the Roman Catholic mission has naturally a larger number of adherents in Nanking than can be shown by later comers. The present local head of the mission, Rev. Père DEBRIX, S.J., informs me that there are now 113,631 baptised converts in the province of Kiangsu, with 29,490 catechumens. The cathedral, erected in 1887 on the site of an older building dating from the beginning of the 17th century, and the mission premises are situated near the Han-hsi Gate. The mission has recently acquired considerable landed property at Hsia-kuan, which has been raised to the level of the *ma-lu* and will afford good building sites in the near future.

The Protestant missions are supported by churches and societies in the United States, and the Foreign workers are mostly recruited from that country. It would be impossible to speak too highly of the educational and medical work, for both men and women, which is being done in our midst, and if the results are not, on the surface, commensurate with the devotion and money so freely expended, there can be little doubt that, beneath the surface, a foundation is being laid on which will eventually be reared a very noble edifice. All mission work was more or less disorganised during the disturbances of 1900; but it speaks well for the zeal of the Native converts that services in the chapels and work in the schools were carried on in the enforced absence of the Foreign missionaries. The reports which have been published up to date all speak most hopefully of the future. To take the missions *seriatim* :—

The Advent Christian Mission supports four Foreign missionaries and nine Native workers, and has, in different parts of the city, five chapels and six schools, besides an orphanage; there are 35 church members.

The American Methodist Episcopal Mission for Central China has, in Nanking and district, 10 Foreign missionaries, 10 Native helpers, and a membership of 271, with 178 probationers. It has opened seven day and Sabbath schools, and possesses three churches and chapels and several rented halls. In the Philander Smith Memorial Hospital, under the skilful superintendence of Dr. BEEBE, assisted by Nurse HANZLIK, it possesses an institution which has relieved an immense amount of suffering, especially among the poor. The report for 1898, the last which I have seen, mentions 19,775 visits to the dispensary during the year and a total of 776 in-patients received. In connexion with the mission is the Nanking University, a school for the teaching of English and science. The scholars are drawn from all classes of society, irrespective of religion. The president is Dr. G. A. STUART, an elder of the Methodist Episcopal Church. As a testimony to the reputation which the university has justly won for itself and to the growing demand for an education in English, it may be mentioned that several instances

have lately occurred of scholars, of no standing nor attainments, being enabled, on the strength of their having passed a term or two at the university, to obtain positions as teachers of English in official families, at a good salary. In its own interests, the university has had, on several occasions, to intervene and disclaim such representatives. The mission buildings are situated at the Han-hsi Gate and near the Drum Tower.

The Central China Mission of the American Presbyterian Church has 13 Foreign missionaries at Nanking; 21 Native workers; seven churches and chapels; three boarding-schools for boys, one for girls, and one mixed; and a membership of about 150. The mission buildings are situated at the Han-hsi Gate. A new station in connexion with this mission is soon to be established in Northern Anhwei.

The Central China Christian Missionary Society has nine Foreign missionaries on its staff, seven Native workers, and a membership of 208. In its schools it is educating 65 boarding and 52 day pupils. The hospital, in charge of Dr. W. E. MACKLIN, attended to 5,307 patients during four months of 1900, and the doctor was, moreover, able to relieve the necessities of large numbers of tramps with funds received from well-to-do Chinese patients.

The Society of Friends has a church membership of 51, with five Foreign missionaries. It provides a well-equipped hospital for women, under the charge of Dr. LUCY GAYNOR.

Before leaving this section, it may be of interest to remark that there are some 20,000 Mahommedans in Nanking. The followers of the Prophet are drawn from all classes of society, except the official, but are chiefly to be found among the jewellery and curio dealers, the keepers of tea and confectionery shops, the sellers of salt ducks and beef, and the donkeymen. The majority come from Shantung and Shansi. Previous to the Rebellion there were 36 mosques in the city, but now only about 20 remain. One of the oldest and largest of these dates from the time of the Ming dynasty. The original building was put up by HUNG WU, in memory of a trusted eunuch named MA SAN-PAO (馬三寶), and the present building still bears the inscription, 勅賜 ("Bestowed by command of the Emperor"). In one of the mosques which I have visited the priests were able to read the Koran in the original and to converse in Arabic. The Mahommedans do not proselytise, but they support one or two schools.

(w.) The following provinces have *hui-kuan* at Nanking: Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan, Chehkiang, Kwangtung and Kwangsi, Fuhkien, Shantung, Shensi (also open to Shansi men), Szechwan, and Honan (the latter under the name Chung-chou (中州) Hui-kuan). In addition, the Bannermen have a guild of their own, called the Pa-ch'i (八旗) Hui-kuan.

The rules which govern these institutions, if they exist in a printed form, are not obtainable; but some information supplied to me by a member of the Liang Kwang Hui-kuan may be considered applicable to all the others. The guild in question was founded in 1884, by HSIA YÜAN-FU, a native of Kwangsi, who had formerly held the office of Taotai in the Kiangnan administration. It is open to all natives of the two provinces Kwangtung and Kwangsi who are in a position to conform to the rules, no matter what their status in society may be; but its members are, naturally, chiefly recruited from the mercantile classes. The affairs of the guild are, theoretically, administered by a president and committee elected by the members, but in practice

one or other of the principal Cantonese shops in the city undertake the management for a certain number of years in rotation. Funds are obtained by subscription twice a year; there is no fixed amount, but no one may give less than \$1. Apart from the upkeep of the establishment, which contains some 20 rooms and employs six or seven servants, ordinary expenditure is confined to defraying the cost of New Year festivities and sacrifices to the dead on certain feast days. Part of the funds of the guild are invested in landed property. For special acts of benevolence and deserving cases, special subscriptions are invited. Every assistance is rendered to Cantonese and natives of Kwangsi who may be in distress, and the guild is ever ready to take up the cases of those who are wronged and too poor to obtain redress. Visitors to Nanking from the two provinces, who have no friends or who cannot afford a lodging, are provided with quarters free of expense. The members, however, do not make of the institution a daily gathering-place, as we do of a club, nor does the guild hold any intercourse with the *hui-kuan* of other provinces.

(x.) During the period under review the Liang Kiang viceroyalty has been held by His Excellency LIU K'UN-I (劉坤一), and his tenure of office has only been broken twice, in 1894 and 1900, when important affairs of State demanded his presence in the North. On the former occasion, the acting appointment was held by the Hukwang Viceroy, His Excellency CHANG CHIH-TUNG; and recently, by His Excellency LU CH'UAN-LIN, the then Governor of the province. Appointed to Nanking, as Acting Viceroy, as far back as 1875, His Excellency LIU is now fulfilling his third term of office as ruler of the largest administrative division of the Empire. He is a native of Hsin-ning-hsien (新甯縣), a district of Hunan, and the last representative of those great Hunan families which in the latter half of the 19th century have given so many statesmen to the country. His long career and unrivalled experience in affairs, his kindly disposition and aversion to taking life—though, on occasion, he can be severe to ruthlessness,—and his well-known and discriminating patriotism, have raised him to a unique position among his own countrymen; while his broad-minded attitude towards Foreign questions, coupled with an unfailing tact and courtesy in his dealing with Foreigners of every nationality and rank in life, have won for him a reputation that goes far beyond the limits of the Middle Kingdom. The fearless manner in which the aged statesman took the lead in 1900, and, by his sagacious handling of affairs in a most difficult crisis, averted untold calamities from the State, is a matter of recent history. It is much to be regretted that His Excellency's health is not all that can be desired.

No Kiangsu men have, within recent years, been found holding high office in any part of the Empire, and it is somewhat remarkable that a province so rich in natural resources, and with a teeming population, should, even in the lower ranks of official life, be so poorly represented.

(y.)

(z.) It requires some boldness to attempt to forecast the commercial future of a Treaty port of only two and a half years standing, and especially is this the case at a time when the whole question of China's Foreign commercial relations is under consideration and about to be regulated by a series of new Treaties. Enough experience has, however, been gained

to enable me to offer up the opinion, with some degree of confidence, that there will, for some time to come, be a steady development along certain well-defined lines. The tendency will be for the junk trade to come more and more to the steamers; there will be a considerable increase in the export trade; and it is possible that Nanking will be found to be a more convenient port of shipment for rice by large steamers than Wuhu. The port will not, I think, become the resort of Foreign merchants to any great extent; but the shipping companies will probably, sooner or later, find it necessary to have Foreign agents here. The introduction of railways into Central China—which cannot now for long be postponed—may, of course, upset all calculations, but they cannot, as far as Nanking is concerned, fail to have a stimulating effect. The promoters of at least one far-reaching scheme have fixed their eyes on Nanking as their future port in the south, and, if their expectations are at all realised, the writer of the next Decennial Report may be able to record the return of this ancient city to a place of commercial importance befitting the dignity of the southern capital.

F. A. AGLEN,
Commissioner of Customs.

CUSTOM HOUSE,
NANKING, 31st December 1901.

APPENDIX.

I.—LIST OF JUNKS WHICH TRADE BETWEEN NANKING AND SEACOAST PLACES.

PLACES TO WHICH TRADING.	LOCAL DESIGNATION OF CLASS OF JUNK.	CARGO CAPACITIES IN PICULS.	CARGO USUALLY CARRIED.
Chehkiang.....	Ningpo tiao-tzu (甯波刁子).....	4,000; 3,000; 2,000; 1,500.	Sundries.
	Shao-tiao-tzu (紹刁子).....	3,500; 2,400; 1,300...	Kerosene oil.
Kwangtung.....	Lung-k'ou (龍口).....	5,000; 3,800; 2,500; 1,800.	Sugar and oil.
	Fang-k'ou (方口).....	4,000; 3,500; 3,000; 1,800.	" "
Fuhkien.....	Hua-pi-ku (花屁股).....	5,000; 4,000; 3,000; 2,000.	Kerosene oil and sugar.
	Hua-tiao-tzu (花刁子).....	4,000; 3,500; 2,700; 1,800.	Sundries.
Formosa.....	Sha-tiao-tzu (抄刁子).....	4,000; 3,500; 1,800; 1,400.	Sugar.
Hongkong.....	Hai-tiao-tzu (海刁子).....	5,000; 4,300; 3,400; 1,700.	Cantonese and Foreign goods.
Newchwang.....	Chia-pan (夾板).....	6,000; 5,000; 3,500; 2,500.	Kerosene oil and sundries.

II.—LIST OF JUNKS WHICH TRADE BETWEEN NANKING AND INLAND PLACES.

PLACES TO WHICH TRADING.	LOCAL DESIGNATION OF CLASS OF JUNK.	CARGO CAPACITIES IN PICULS.	CARGO USUALLY CARRIED.
Hunan.....	Ya-shao-tzu (桡梢子).....	500; 440; 400; 320; 250; 170.	Fuel; coal.
	Yü-ying-tzu (魚鷹子).....	450; 300; 250; 200...	Paper.
	K'ai-shao-hua-tzu (開梢划子).....	340; 250; 160	Grain.
	Tiao-kou-tzu (吊鉤子).....	2,400; 2,000; 1,700; 1,200; 1,000.	Huai salt.
	Hsien-kuo-lan-tzu (鮮果籃子).....	600; 540; 470; 400; 320; 240.	Tea; sundries.
Hupei.....	Tao-po-tzu (達波子).....	600; 450; 320; 220; 140.	Rice; sundries.
Kiangsi.....	Tou-tzu (斗子).....	480; 400; 320; 200...	Grain.
	Hung-hsiu-hsieh (紅繡鞋) (shaped like a woman's shoe).	500; 340; 220	Paper.
	Fang ch'uan (放繡).....	800; 640; 500; 380; 200.	Porcelain.

PLACES TO WHICH TRADING.	LOCAL DESIGNATION OF CLASS OF JUNK.	CARGO CAPACITIES IN PICULS.	CARGO USUALLY CARRIED.
Anhwei.....	Wu-ts'ang-tzu (五 鎗 子).....	400; 320; 240.....	Grain.
	San-ts'ang-tzu (三 鎗 子).....	270; 200; 140.....	"
	Chiao-hu-tzu (焦 湖 子).....	440; 300; 240.....	"
	Pai-sha-chou (白 沙 舟).....	600; 470; 320.....	Tea.
	Liang-shan-tzu (梁 山 子).....	380; 300; 250.....	Coir; hemp.
Kiangsu:—			
Nanking.....	Lou ch'uan (樓 船).....	500; 370; 350.....	Grain.
	Liang-p'eng (涼 篷).....	320; 240; 160.....	Sesamum; beans and peas.
	Wei-ho-wu-ts'ang ch'uan (內河五鎗船).....	260; 200; 150.....	Grain; beans and peas.
Liu-ho.....	T'iao-hua (挑 划).....	300; 250; 200; 140.....	Grain; beans and peas; sesamum.
	P'u-shao (浦 梢).....	340; 280; 200.....	Grain.
	Shih-shao (十 梢).....	240; 180; 140.....	"
	San-ts'ang (三 鎗).....	200; 170; 130.....	Sesamum seed and beans.
Yangchow.....	Wu-ts'ang-shao-pai-hua (五鎗邵伯划).....	500; 370; 240.....	Sundries and passengers.
	Nan-wan-tzu (南 灣 子).....	400; 300; 220; 150.....	Sundries.
Ta'ingkiangpu and Huai-an.	Ta-huang-kua (大 黃 跨).....	360; 280; 160.....	Canary seeds (spiked millet).
	Hsiao-huang-kua (小 黃 跨).....	300; 200; 160.....	Grain.
Soochow.....	Hsuan ch'uan (宣 船).....	300; 260; 170.....	"
	Yao ch'uan (搖 船).....	300; 260; 200; 140.....	Passengers.
	Pan-k'uai (板 快).....	320; 240; 180.....	Grain.
	Kuang-k'uai (廣 快).....	270; 220; 150.....	Passengers.
	Sha ch'uan (沙 船).....	320; 260; 200; 150.....	Grain.
	Chiang-tung-tzu (江 東 子).....	380; 300; 240.....	Grain; peas and beans.
Kiangyin.....	Ts'ung-ting (崇 丁).....	1,000; 700; 500; 300.....	Sundries.
Tungchow.....	Yu-tung-tzu (油 桶 子).....	500; 430; 400; 320.....	Tungchow Native cloth.
	Ssu-wang-tzu (絲 網 子).....	1,000; 400; 340; 240.....	Raw cotton.
	Mi-pao-tzu (米 包 子).....	500; 370; 250.....	Rice.

CHINKIANG.

DECENNIAL REPORT, 1892-1901.

(a.) THE TEN YEARS.—The trade of the port of Chinkiang, for the decade under review, was, so far as it came under the cognizance of the Maritime Customs, prosperous and progressive. The increase was, however, neither regular nor uniform, for there were bad years with the good; but the worst, judged by the Revenue collected and the value of the total trade, was better than the best of the previous decade, and the average annual value of the decade was 73 per cent. greater.

In 1892 a drought and a plague of locusts ruined many crops, and brought disappointment to farmers and merchants alike; but notwithstanding these drawbacks, the volume of trade for the year reached unusual proportions, as the late crops did not suffer from the summer drought, and turned out very well.

In 1893 excessive rainfall during the summer injured the Rice and nearly ruined the poppies, and the result was one of the worst years of the decade, as Wheat was the only grain exported.

In 1894 the plague in Hongkong is said to have had a prejudicial effect on the Chinkiang trade. The war between China and Japan did not, apparently, disturb the trade in the Yangtze Valley, except that the exportation of Rice was forbidden for a time—always a serious blow to local trade. In October this prohibition was withdrawn here, but not at Wuhu; and thereafter, till the end of the year, Chinkiang did a rushing business in the grain trade.

After the war ended in 1895 trade became very lively; crops were excellent, and, the exportation of Rice from Wuhu being prohibited till late in the year, there was a phenomenal export of Rice from Chinkiang. The Returns for the year show the largest Revenue collection and the greatest volume of trade in the history of the port.

In 1896 business was good during the first half of the year, but fell off in the last half, and many failures followed. The demand for money to meet the first instalment of the Japanese indemnity caused a stringency in the money market, and rates became very high, resulting in the curtailment of business operations. Outward Transit Pass privileges were granted to Native merchants this year for the first time. A factory for the manufacture of Albumen was established; and two Silk filatures with steam power were erected. The growing scarcity of copper cash became very noticeable.

In 1897 there was a fair business done, in spite of a tight money market, and the Returns show a small increase over the 1896 figures. The Imperial Postal Service was inaugurated during the year, post offices being opened at Chinkiang and the other Treaty ports, and also at many inland places.

1898 was a decidedly bad year, and ran 1893 very hard for the lowest place in the decade. Failure of the Rice crop, and the continued export of grain, brought about a state of things which is described as follows in the Trade Report for the year:—"Consequent upon the unceasing shipment of grain, the country became drained of its food supply to an extent threatening famine. Rice was sold at a price unprecedented in the history of the place; the supplies for current use stored here and at Nanking were suffered to reach a very low ebb, and how to provide instant relief became the most pressing question of the hour. Public discontent grew intense, and riotous assemblings at Nanking and elsewhere had to be dispersed by military force. To relieve the situation, an adequate quantity of foodstuff was brought from Anhwei, its distribution being placed under official supervision. Concurrently, the movement of grain within the province was declared free and its export prohibited. A plentiful harvest came most opportunely to bring harmony where discontent prevailed and to afford the means of infusing vigour into the dormant conditions of trade." Famine refugees came down by thousands from the border of Shantung, and were sent back later at government expense. The inland waters were opened to steam navigation under the new rules, and owners of steam-launches promptly availed themselves of the privilege.

The year 1899 showed a marked improvement in trade, resulting from a fine harvest of cereals and a good crop of sundry agricultural products, which was only checked by the shoaling of the Grand Canal making the transportation of merchandise to and from the districts to the north of the port difficult. The sudden revival of the Foreign Opium traffic was noteworthy, as the quantity imported exceeded the records of the previous 12 years—that is to say, the importation was the largest since the introduction of the simultaneous collection of Duty and Likin.

In 1900 the weather was, on the whole, very favourable for all cereals, but bad for Ground-nuts, Lily Flowers, and the poppy. The year opened well, and a large business was done during the first half; but the Boxer troubles in the North caused a panic amongst the people, and merchants tried to realise on their stocks and secrete their capital in places of safety. Mexican dollars were in great demand, and went to a high premium, being preferred to sycee and cash for hoarding. The panic was so sudden that the authorities were quite unprepared to meet and quiet it at once; but they worked energetically and well, and succeeded in keeping order in this neighbourhood. The fears of the people were gradually allayed, and trade was resumed and became quite brisk before the end of the year; but the total value of the trade for the year showed a loss of 2½ million taels as compared with 1899. A new line of steamers under the German flag appeared on the river; and two more hulks were moored and connected with the shore.

In 1901 excessive rains in the summer did great damage to the Rice crop. The rains were followed by floods, the level of the river on 4th August being 2 feet higher than for many years previously. The low-lying ground on each side of the river was under water for some time; but, though serious, the flooding did not cause such distress as in other ports and places on the Yangtze. The trade of the port did not, apparently, suffer, and the year was one of the best in the decade from a business point of view. The introduction of Soda Ash (Alkali), from England, met with great success, and seems likely to become an important article of import.

(b.) THE TRADE OF THE PORT.—The shipping tables show a very large increase, during the decade, in the number and tonnage of vessels entered and cleared at the port. In 1892, 4,100 vessels of all kinds, aggregating 3,100,000 tons, entered and cleared at the Custom House. The number and tonnage of vessels increased slightly, year by year, till 1897 showed 4,371 entries and clearances, with a total tonnage of 3,535,739 tons. In 1898 a Japanese company—the Osaka Shosen Kaisha—established a line of steamers on the river, and steam-launches began to ply from and to the inland waters under the new rules: the number of entries and clearances went up to 6,308, but, as the launches were all of small size, there was only a very slight increase in the tonnage. Further increases in the number of steam-launches and in the number of Japanese river steamers, and the starting of lines of river steamers by the Norddeutscher Lloyd Company in 1900 and the Hamburg-America line in 1901, raised the figures, in the shipping tables rapidly, till 1901, the last year of the decade, showed a total of 10,450 vessels entered and cleared, of 5,235,916 tons.

Unfortunately, the volume of trade did not keep pace with the advance in the shipping, as the following figures testify:—

	1892.	1901.
	Hk.Ta.	Hk.Ta.
Value of Foreign Imports	10,000,000	16,680,000
" Native "	4,500,000	5,800,000
" Exports	2,500,000	5,000,000

When the great decline in the value of silver during the decade is considered, it will be evident that the increase in the 1901 values, as compared with those of 1892, is no index to the volume of the trade; for, as a matter of fact, there was a decreased importation of many articles in the Foreign Imports list, but the greatly increased silver price brought values to the high mark attained. For example, 1,013,965 pieces of Grey Shirtings, valued at Hk.Ta. 1,825,137, were imported in 1892; while only 552,109 pieces were imported in 1901, but they were valued at Hk.Ta. 1,545,905. The prices of Native produce also advanced, in many cases, during the decade; but the advance was not nearly so great as in the case of Foreign goods, and it would be difficult to determine, in some cases, from the data available, whether the rise in price was due to the fall in the value of silver or to a short supply resulting from bad crops, or difficulties of transportation, or to a greatly increased demand.

The following list, containing the more important Imports, excepting Opium, gives the quantity imported of each, for the years 1892, 1897, and 1901:—

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	1892.	1897.	1901.
Shirtings, all kinds..... Pieces	1,158,000	853,000	650,000
T-Cloths..... "	123,000	101,000	56,000
Drills, English..... "	43,000	23,000	8,000
" American..... "	38,000	53,000	84,000
Sheetings, English..... "	76,000	104,000	74,000
" American..... "	10,000	8,000	18,000
Cotton Yarn, English..... Piculs	834	1,000	920
" " Indian..... "	84,900	94,000	192,300
" " Japanese..... "	...	5,000	2,900
Woollen Piece Goods..... Pieces	37,000	31,000	16,000
Matches, European..... Gross	513,000	31,000	13,000
" Japan..... "	...	986,000	1,203,000
Oil, Kerosene, American..... Gallons	1,520,000	4,487,000	4,909,000
" " Russian and Sumatra..... "	1,176,000	1,805,000	2,580,000
Sugar, all kinds..... Piculs	531,000	627,000	668,000

The figures of this list are interesting. They show a decline of 50 per cent. in Shirtings and T-Cloths, which were formerly the Foreign Cotton fabrics in greatest demand by the Natives, and of over 50 per cent. in Woollens. There may have been, of course, various local reasons for the falling off in the sale of Cotton Goods—for instance, by the opening of Nanking, Chinkiang lost a market formerly supplied wholly or in part from this port; but the principal reason must have been, undoubtedly, the depreciation of the value of silver. Many consumers, as they saw the prices steadily rising, were forced to cease buying cloth which they liked because of its appearance, though it was not very strong and durable, and were obliged to go back to the Native Cloth of their childhood, or to buy cloth woven locally from the Indian and Japanese Yarns; and it is possible that some considered it more economical, as prices of all Foreign Cotton Goods were high, to buy the heavier and stronger Drills and Sheetings, which show gains during the decade. The Natives have become accustomed to certain Foreign goods, and they will have them; but they, very naturally, wish to pay as little as possible for them. Therefore, as a country with a silver currency and cheap labour can supply certain goods cheaper than other countries, it can—as Japan has done in the past—secure larger orders from China. It remains to be seen how the adoption of a gold standard by Japan will affect her export trade to China. India, having the Cotton and the cheap labour, continues to supply China with the bulk of the Cotton Yarn imported, notwithstanding the fact that she has adopted a gold standard.

Japan Matches have shown an enormous increase during the decade, while the trade in European Matches at this port has dwindled almost to nothing.

Kerosene Oil, in spite of adverse exchange, shows a wonderful progress, and finds ready favour with the Natives everywhere, who adopt it because of its extreme brilliancy as compared with the Native oil. It has a great future before it, as, with the increasing facilities of transport to the remote parts of China, it is certain to obtain a more and more extended circulation.

The relative importance of Foreign trade at Chinkiang is, of course, due principally to the admirable waterways it possesses for the easy distribution of goods to distant markets. The prominent position the port enjoyed for years has suffered by the opening of Wuhu, first, and, quite recently, by the opening of Nanking, both of which should develop at the expense of Chinkiang. But Chinkiang cannot be deprived of the natural advantages of her locality, and not only retains as customers the province of Honan and the southern districts of Shantung, but sends supplies to Anhwei and Kiangsi as well. The fact that it has been possible to institute a system by which the use of Transit Passes for the conveyance of produce to and from the interior has become available is of much assistance to Chinkiang. About four-fifths of the Foreign goods, other than Opium, imported through the Chinkiang Customs are sent inland under Transit Passes, going principally north by way of the Grand Canal, as far as Tsingkiangpu, and thence either further by the canal, into Shantung, or by the Huai River and its tributaries into Anhwei and Honan.

The Inward Transit business formed, as usual, an important part of the trade of the port during the decade, and bore, practically, the same relation to the Import trade in the last year as in the first year of the decade—as in 1892 Foreign goods were sent inland under Transit Passes to the value of *Hk.Tta* 6,800,000, being 80 per cent. of the value of all Foreign goods imported except Opium, while in 1901 the value of the Inward Transit goods amounted to *Hk.Tta* 11,000,000, or 79.3 per cent. In 1892 the Inward Transit Dues amounted to *Hk.Tta* 142,000, and 8,173 Passes were issued for goods to be conveyed to places in six provinces, viz., Kiangsu, Honan, Anhwei, Shantung, Kiangsi, and Hunan; while in 1901 the Transit Dues were *Hk.Tta* 195,000, and the 6,746 Passes were issued for the same provinces, except that Chebkiang appears in the list instead of Hunan.

The prosperity of the Export trade of Chinkiang, as it has practically no manufactures, is, of course, dependent upon the quality and quantity of cereals and other agricultural products harvested during the year; but it often happens, unfortunately, that the trade in cereals is *nil*, even in years of bountiful harvests, as the export of grain, which is a most important item in the trade of the Yangtze Valley below Tatung, is sometimes prohibited wholly, and at other times restricted, now to Chinkiang, now to Wuhu—subject, apparently, to the caprice of the authorities, but, in reality, to certain local economic considerations. For the last three years of the decade the exportation of Rice from Chinkiang was prohibited, while from Wuhu it was allowed. But the situation was reversed at the time of the Japan war, in 1895, when permission to export Rice was limited to Chinkiang; in that year no less than 6,700,000 piculs of grain, valued at *Hk.Tta* 8,750,000, were shipped by steamers from Chinkiang. If it is considered that Chinkiang's total Export trade in 1901 was only worth *Hk.Tta* 5,000,000, then the difference which the opening or closing of the port to the shipment of grain may make in the volume and value of the Export trade becomes evident.

For purposes of comparison, the following table of some of the principal Exports, for the years 1892, 1896, 1900, and 1901, may prove of interest:—

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	1892.	1896.	1900.	1901.
Beans and Peas..... Piculs	121,000	143,000	599,000	431,000
Grain..... "	289,000	880,000	197,000 *	192,000 *
Ground-nuts..... "	140,000	434,000	251,000	367,000
Lily Flowers, Dried..... "	42,000	66,000	42,000	52,000
Silk Piece Goods..... "	820	2,600	981	1,300

* Tribute Rice only—export of grain prohibited.

The list of Exports is made up almost exclusively of the products of the soil, from which the occupation of the bulk of the people may be inferred. There has been no change in the kinds of produce exported, which remain the same to-day as they were in the early years of the port. Of the industries peculiar to China, very few are met with in this neighbourhood. True, there is some Silk culture of long standing. Raw Silk is produced, and Silk fabrics are made; but in quality they do not come near the class of Silks which are in the greatest demand. They are mostly made up into Piece Goods of light texture, suitable for summer wear, and, as such, are in demand locally and at the northern ports. The neighbouring port of Nanking, however, leads the way in Silks, as the fabrics it turns out are distinctly superior to the Chinkiang article. Previous to 1899 the bulk of Nanking Silks was brought here for shipment by steamers—a circumstance to explain the sudden fall that will be noticed in the table for 1900. The two Silk filatures, erected in 1896 with Native capital, and managed entirely by Natives, have had a precarious existence, owing to a lack of material to work with. By agreement between the two companies, the two filatures never work at the same time, and often neither has been able to work, on account of the scarcity of Cocoons.

The history of the other industrial undertakings started during the decade is equally unsatisfactory. The manufacture of Albumen was begun here in 1896. During 1897, the first complete year of operation, the export was 82 piculs; in 1898, 150 piculs; in 1899, 199 piculs; in 1900, 739 piculs; and in 1901, 339 piculs. The factory uses principally ducks eggs, which are to be had in abundance and at a moderate cost, so that the quantity of Albumen could be easily increased, provided it paid to do so. This factory was run by a German firm, who started one in Wuhu also. Competition by Foreigners at Wuhu, and Chinese near Yangchow, followed; and the supply of Albumen soon exceeded the demand, resulting in a fall of prices and a partial cessation of work at the several factories.

Another venture, that of preparing tinned preserves, was started in the year 1898. The abundance of game, fish, poultry, eggs, etc., in and about Chinkiang, and the cheapness of Native labour, suggested to some Shanghai capitalists the possibility of preserving game, meat, etc., on a large scale, and competing successfully with the home factories. A steam factory

was built, and the services of experts in the art of cooking and preserving secured. The immediate result was that prices in the local market went up about 50 per cent. above former prices for all such articles as the factory needed. By 1900 the factory had a considerable supply of preserved food of various kind in stock; and when the troubles of that year necessitated the despatch of Foreign troops to Tientsin, advantage was taken of the prevailing demand for transportable food supplies, and a shipment of the factory's products, valued at *Ta* 11,000, was sent North. What the result of the venture was is unknown; but the factory displayed no great activity thereafter, and late in 1901 work ceased.

The Export trade of the port has been greatly benefited by the Outward Transit Pass system in force here; and the Outward Transit business shows as large a per-centage of increase during the decade as the Export trade does. The following list, giving the articles dealt in in 1892 and 1901, and the quantity and value of each article, shows at a glance the increase of this branch of the Transit trade:—

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1892.		1901.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Almonds.....	Piculs	140	<i>Hk.Ta</i> 3,262	245	<i>Hk.Ta</i> 5,206
China-root.....	"	1,479	7,838	1,398	8,807
Dates, Black.....	"	33,982	142,045
" Red.....	"	11,260	28,150	23,132	68,469
Ground-nuts.....	"	86,630	121,282	378,228	1,028,779
Hides, Cow and Buffalo.....	"	7,173	136,287
Lily Flowers, Dried.....	"	46,053	336,184	57,353	591,882
Mats, Bamboo.....	Pieces	179,875	35,975	38,250	7,650
Medicines.....	Value	...	26,432	...	56,466
Oil, Bean.....	Piculs	802	6,360
" Ground-nut.....	"	1,500	7,050	56,762	473,962
" Sesamum Seed.....	"	10,068	79,839
Persimmons, Dried.....	"	16,580	26,528
Samshu.....	"	1,660	4,150	4,990	14,970
Seed, Melon.....	"	15,172	69,791	75,446	439,096
" Senna.....	"	50	70	5,331	8,080
Soup.....	"	10,634	26,586	19,674	66,397
Straw Braid.....	"	630	31,500	320	12,800
Tallow, Animal.....	"	550	3,520	2,542	17,794
Vermicelli.....	"	70	182	75	190
Walnuts.....	"	1,920	4,749	6,427	17,940
Wool, Sheep's.....	"	428	1,541	135	1,150
TOTAL.....	<i>Hk.Ta</i>		708,262		3,210,697
TRANSIT PASSES SURRENDERED.....	No.	1,110		2,992	

Lily Flowers, which held the first place in 1892, with a value of *Hk.Ta* 336,184, had fallen to the second place nine years later, in spite of an increase of 76 per cent. in value during the interval; and Ground-nuts, which increased in value from *Hk.Ta* 121,282 in 1892 to *Hk.Ta* 1,028,779 in 1901, easily took the lead. China-root, Mats, Straw Braid, and Sheep's

Wool alone show a falling off, while most of the other articles show a very heavy per-centage of gain. The changes in the prices of the commodities during the decade are curious, some being from 50 to 100 per cent. higher in 1901 than in 1892—for example, Ground-nuts, Lily Flowers, Ground-nut Oil, Melon Seeds, etc.,—others being lower—for example, Straw Braid and Sheep's Wool,—while the prices of Almonds, Mats, Samshu, Tallow, and Vermicelli remained about the same.

It may be remarked that only 20 of the 22 articles, in the table given, appear in the Chinkiang list of articles which may be brought down from the interior under Transit Passes issued at Chinkiang, the other articles—Almonds and China-root—having been brought down under Passes issued at Shanghai. The Chinkiang list consisted at the end of 1901 of the last 20 articles given in the above table, and of the following 11 articles, viz., Alum, Bones, Bristles, Cotton, White Dates, Horns (Cow and Buffalo), 1st Quality Paper, 2nd Quality Paper, Silk, Leaf Tobacco, and Varnish.

Early in 1900 a piece of mineral was brought to the Custom House for inspection which resembled ordinary Coal, but a careful examination proved it to be Plumbago (Black-lead). The mineral was discovered by a Foreigner while riding among the hills at Kao-tzū (高資), a few miles to the west of Chinkiang, where there was plenty of it scattered about on the ground. The Natives, when asked concerning it, declared that it was Coal of bad quality, which would not burn, and was therefore of no value, and that there was plenty of it to be got at the hills by digging for it. A mining expert, after surveying the locality, recommended the acquisition of the territory and the formation of a company to put the mineral on the European market. A trial shipment of the Plumbago was made to London in the course of the year, which sold so well that a syndicate arranged for the purchase of the place where the deposits of the mineral were so rich. The matter is at present the subject of negotiation between the Chinese authorities and the syndicate, with a fair prospect of satisfactory settlement.

An important concession came into operation in the summer of 1898, when, subject to certain conditions, the inland waters of China were opened to steam traffic—that is, steam vessels registered expressly for this trade were permitted to ply from Treaty ports to places inland not opened to commerce but accessible through navigable waterways. At Chinkiang the privilege thus offered was instantly availed of, and a number of steam-launches commenced to run to places north and south on the Grand Canal. Their business, however, had to be restricted, for the time being, to the transport of passengers and treasure and to the towing of Native boats, the conveyance of merchandise being suspended until the question of Likin and other taxes could be satisfactorily solved. Notwithstanding the limited nature of the work allowed, the experiment has not been a failure; on the contrary, the passenger traffic with Yangchow and Tsingkiangpu is increasing so much that new launches have from time to time to be added to the existing fleet. Other lines, in other directions, are also being opened and kept up; and the traffic has, thus far, been remunerative. The innovation is regarded with jealousy by the interests opposed to it. There are complaints against the steamers by officials and people, and many petty obstacles calculated to annoy and discourage steamer-owners are

put in the way. Time will no doubt remove ill-feeling and prejudice, and the various advantages offered by steam navigation should not fail to receive acknowledgment.

(c.) REVENUE.—The following table shows the total annual Revenue from 1892 to 1901, and the amount contributed by Opium Duty and Likin, Export Duties, and Transit Dues:—

YEAR.	TOTAL REVENUE.	OPIMUM DUTY AND LIKIN.	EXPORT DUTY.	TRANSIT DUES, INWARDS AND OUTWARDS.
	Hk.Tls	Hk.Tls	Hk.Tls	Hk.Tls
1892.....	631,191	329,148	104,505	156,852
1893.....	702,625	370,571	138,399	144,738
1894.....	913,498	459,753	264,474	145,981
1895.....	1,412,110	427,573	724,640	182,429
1896.....	855,004	376,365	218,486	179,973
1897.....	810,977	325,593	214,607	196,734
1898.....	714,281	324,878	164,571	162,628
1899.....	926,335	477,435	141,642	201,300
1900.....	891,042	435,750	140,618	176,184
1901.....	991,629	424,061	164,546	248,766

As the simultaneous collection of Opium Duty and Likin, which more than doubled the Revenue of this port for a number of years, only began in 1887, any comparison of the total collection of any year of the decade with any year prior to 1887, without deducting the Opium Duty and Likin, would be misleading, as no Likin was collected by the Customs and the Opium arrived from Shanghai Duty paid in the earlier years. Since the date of the collection of Opium Duty and Likin, the record year in the last decade was 1887, when the total Revenue was Hk.Tls 733,110. The above table shows a very large increase in the Revenue of this port, as in only three years of the decade was the total collection less than that of 1887. In 1895 the total Revenue amounted to Hk.Tls 1,412,110, and this total will probably stand as the record for many years, unless the same conditions should again occur, viz., a splendid grain harvest and a great demand in other provinces, with no restrictions on the export from Chinkiang and a prohibition of the export of all grain from Wuhu. Aside from the exceptional exportation of grain in 1894 and 1895, there was a gratifying increase in general Exports during the decade; and, leaving 1895 out of account, the average amount of Export Duties for the other years is more than double the average annual Export Duties of the previous decade, and this notwithstanding the prohibition of the export of grain from Chinkiang since 1898.

The Transit Dues show a substantial increase, and attained the highest total during the last year of the decade.

As Tonnage Dues, and Import Duties on goods other than Opium, formed but a small part of the Revenue, they have not been shown separately in the Revenue table; but the Import Duties have increased during the last three years, in spite of the fact that most Foreign goods arrive from Shanghai under Exemption Certificate, and the amount collected under this heading in 1901 was Hk.Tls 64,360, while in 1892 it was only Hk.Tls 540, and had never before been over Hk.Tls 36,500.

(d.) FOREIGN AND NATIVE OPIUM.—In the first issue of the Decennial Reports the decline in the import of Indian Opium, and its causes, are discussed at length under Chinkiang, and a reference to it is recommended to anyone wishing for information on the subject. Until 1885 Chinkiang disposed of about 10,000 piculs a year of Foreign Opium; from that time a decline set in, due, apparently, to the working of the system introduced, under which Duty and Likin were simultaneously collected by the Customs. That system must have enabled dealers to use new routes for the distribution of the Opium which were more convenient for certain markets that were formerly supplied from Chinkiang. Certain it is that, from the year 1887, the quantity of Indian Opium landed at Chinkiang began to diminish so rapidly as to threaten to disappear entirely. In 1892, the opening year of the decade, the import stood just under 3,000 piculs; the lowest record, 2,953 piculs, was reached in 1898, when a recovery, due to a succession of failures of the local poppy plantations, occurred, raising the importation in the succeeding year to 4,340 piculs; in 1900, 3,960 piculs were imported, and in 1901 only 3,856 piculs. The principal reason for the decline, so far as Chinkiang is concerned, is undoubtedly the great increase in the production of Native Opium in North Kiangsu. There has been no decrease of the habit of opium-smoking. In the opinion of the Natives, which a careful observation seems to support, the taste for Opium is spreading steadily in this part of Kiangsu. But as the Foreign drug is much dearer than the Native, the smoker of ordinary means chooses the latter, which is good, although inferior to the Indian in point of quality; and it is only reasonable to expect a further decline in the quantity of the Indian Opium used, as the Native increases in quantity and improves in quality.

Native Opium now holds a prominent place amongst the products of the land in this province. Nearly the whole of the area of the extreme north-west of Kiangsu, formerly watered by the Yellow River, is now given up to the cultivation of the poppy, to which the character of the soil lends itself admirably. The city of Hsü-chou-fu, by virtue of its position as the centre of the Opium districts, is the seat of a high official deputed to control the production of the drug and to safeguard the interests of the State in the due collection of Likin and taxes to which the article is subject. Compared to the Foreign, the Hsü-chou product is very lightly taxed, even after allowing for the difference in price, and would bear a very considerable increase of taxation. People who are in the trade say that the Hsü-chou Opium, as regards flavour, most nearly approaches the Malwa, though inferior to it; smokers, however, who make use of it, come to like it, and to prefer it to any of the Indian or Persian preparations. There are two kinds of Hsü-chou Opium known in the trade—one is the *Pao-t'u* (包土), or dry drug, packed in parcels, and superior in quality; and the other is the *P'en-chiang* (盤漿), or wet drug, in a semi-liquid state, kept in open earthenware dishes, and considered inferior in quality. The annual production of the Hsü-chou Opium varies, of course, from year to year, the success or failure of the crop depending entirely on weather conditions. In a good average year the yield is about 10,000 piculs, which is sometimes diminished by one-half when the weather is unfavourable. Of course, the area of land devoted to the poppy plant can be still further increased, so that the output is far from having reached its possible limit; and it is not too much to say that North Kiangsu could soon produce enough Opium to supply the wants of the whole province, if the demand for the

Indian drug were to cease suddenly. In 1901 there was a good crop, and the price fell about 30 per cent.

(e.) THE MONEY MARKET.—*The Currency.*—Both dollars and sycee (2.7 touch) are used at Chinkiang in business transactions.

Local Tael.—The fixed rate of the local tael (2.7 touch) is *Chinkiang Tia* 104.16 for *Hk. Tia* 100. The value of sycee is, however, as everywhere, subject to constant change, the rate being settled daily by telegram from Soochow—sometimes as often as twice a day.

Dollars.—Until the opening of the Wuchang Mint, in August 1895, put the Hupeh dollars on the Chinkiang market, the Mexican dollar had been the only coin in use at this port, and even now it is practically the standard coin of the locality—the Hupeh dollar, which was but little appreciated when it first appeared, being much less common and still of a slightly lower value than the Foreign dollar. The new Mint opened at Nanking, in 1898, introduced the Kiangnan dollar, the value of which has gradually gone up; but, like the Hupeh dollar, it is still slightly inferior in value to the Mexican dollar. Kwangtung dollars are also occasionally seen at Chinkiang and used in trade. As for the dollars minted in Fuhkien, Anhwei, and Peking, they are not easily disposed of, owing to the inferior quality of the silver entering into their composition. In making dollar payments, 10 per cent. of Hupeh and Kiangnan dollars is accepted. For payments made wholly in these Native dollars, a discount of 2 or 3 cash per dollar is charged.

The commercial panic caused by the Boxer troubles of the summer of 1900 brought about a sudden rise in the value of dollars as compared with the Haikwan tael; and towards the beginning of August of that year *Hk. Tia* 100 could only purchase \$138.90, whereas in ordinary times, as will be seen from the table appended below, the number of dollars which *Hk. Tia* 100 will buy is from 150 to 154. The dollar was at that time equal to as much as *Hk. Tia* 0.7.2.0, or *Chinkiang Tia* 0.7.5.0. Its cash value has dropped from 1,045 cash in 1891 to 902 in 1901 (31st December).

Copper Cash.—The copper cash in use here are large cash; but "small cash" (spurious cash), although prohibited, are nevertheless in current use, each string, of 1,000 cash each, given by cash shops containing from 40 to 50 of these bad cash, in which the large banks do not deal. It is a common practice to give these cash to beggars, who exchange them for large cash, receiving from 4 to 6 large cash for 10 small ones.

The scarcity of cash at this port is alluded to in several of the Chinkiang Trade Reports written since 1891. In the Report for 1896 a hope is expressed that "during 1897 the authorities will devise some useful measure to increase the supply of copper cash. The scarcity of cash has caused very great embarrassment all round, and remedial measures are urgently needed to alleviate this distress. Formerly, 1,050 cash were procurable for a dollar; now a dollar will scarcely realise 900 cash." In the Trade Report for 1897 it is said that "the famine in copper cash, which was so prominent a feature of 1896, was appreciably relieved during the first nine months of 1897, but with the close of 1897 appears to have set in again as severely as ever." At the end of December 1898 the Mint at Nanking, which had been opened that year, had struck the following silver coins: dollars, 1,400,000; 50-cent pieces, 100,000; 20-cent pieces, 7,000,000;

10-cent pieces, 8,000,000; 5-cent pieces, 100,000; but owing to the late completion of the cash-manufacturing plant, only 20,000 strings of cash were turned out; and in the Trade Report for 1899 it is stated that cash-making by the Nanking Mint was stopped that year, owing to the high price of copper.

At the present time the supply of cash is still short, and a dollar can now purchase only 902 cash. The lowest cash value of the dollar was at the close of 1899, when only 870 cash could be obtained in exchange. It is quite safe to attribute the present scarcity of cash chiefly to the illicit melting of the coins; notwithstanding that death is the penalty for this industry, it is on the increase, and there are now at least six foundries on the north bank of the river and two in Chinkiang city itself. The metal obtained by melting the cash is used in the manufacture of copper articles.

During the decade, copper cash attained its highest value in 1898, when 1,000 cash were worth *Chinkiang* *Ta* 0.8.2.0, making the Chinkiang tael equal to 1,245 cash. Just now, however, the increased use of subsidiary silver coin has had the effect of slightly lowering the value of the copper coin, and 1,000 cash are equal to *Chinkiang* *Ta* 0.7.5.9.5, the actual value of the Chinkiang tael being now 1,317 cash.

Exchange Values.—The average value of the Haikwan tael in dollars and in copper cash, during each year, was as follows:—

1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
\$1.536 1,648 cash	\$1.5295 1,565 cash	\$1.50 1,540 cash	\$1.4880 1,500 cash	\$1.542 1,419 cash	\$1.516 1,378 cash	\$1.507 1,370 cash	\$1.51 1,389 cash	\$1.50 1,376 cash	\$1.522 1,405 cash

The average value of a Mexican dollar in Chinkiang taels, during each year, was as follows:—

1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.6.7.8	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.6.8.1	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.6.9.5	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.7.0.0	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.6.7.5	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.6.8.7	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.6.9.1	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.6.8.9	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.6.9.5	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.6.8.4

The average value of 1,000 copper cash in Chinkiang taels, during each year, was as follows:—

1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.6.4.5	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.6.7.9	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.6.9.0	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.7.0.8	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.7.4.9	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.7.7.1	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.7.7.5	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.7.6.5	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.7.7.2	<i>Chin. Ta m.c.c.</i> 0.7.5.6

(f.) The following table shows the comparative values of goods arrived and departed during the decade under review:—

YEAR.	VALUE OF IMPORTS, minus DUTY, OPIUM LIKIN, AND CHARGES, ETC.*	VALUE OF EXPORTS, plus DUTY AND CHARGES, ETC.†	EXCESS OF IMPORT OVER EXPORT VALUES.
	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>	<i>Hk. Ta</i>
1892.....	13,086,201	2,846,951	10,239,250
1893.....	13,208,730	3,104,281	10,104,449
1894.....	13,649,797	4,724,644	8,925,153
1895.....	16,258,279	13,574,678	2,683,601
1896.....	16,718,089	5,112,003	11,606,086
1897.....	17,378,056	5,699,642	11,678,414
1898.....	17,083,738	4,929,486	12,154,252
1899.....	19,650,224	4,457,289	15,192,935
1900.....	17,244,492	4,576,873	12,667,619
1901.....	20,249,999	5,624,734	14,625,265
TOTAL.....	<i>Hk. Ta</i> 164,527,605	54,650,581	109,877,024

* Charges, etc. = 7 per cent.

† Charges, etc. = 8 per cent.

(g.) THE CITY OF CHINKIANG.—The great development of the trade of the port during the decade naturally resulted in an increase of the population. According to the Chinese official records, the population of Chinkiang in 1901 was 202,000—65,000 being in the walled city and 137,000 in the suburbs,—which is an increase of from 50,000 to 70,000 over the figures given in the last Decennial Report as the estimated population in 1891. This increase has nearly all been in the west suburb, between the city and the British Concession.

With the increased prosperity and population, there has been a rapid rise in the price of land and in rents, the former having advanced from 100 to 500 per cent., and the latter from 40 to 100 per cent.

The Foreign residents in Chinkiang were 205 in 1901. About 1,600 Chinese live in the Concession; there has been little or no increase in their number since 1891.

Private individuals have built, from time to time, a bund in front of their land, from the western limit of the British Concession to Garlic Hill. In 1895 an addition to the Bund in front of the Custom House was made, 275 feet long, and 3 feet wide at the eastern boundary and 26 feet wide at the western, where it joins the British Concession. In 1897 and 1898 the Bund along the Concession was carried out from 40 to 70 feet, from the eastern limit of the Concession to the municipal landing-stage, a distance of 270 feet; and in 1901 work was begun on the extension of the Bund from the landing-stage to the western boundary of the Concession, and will be finished early in 1902—this extension will be 1,050 feet long and 50 feet wide.

In 1897 the British members of the community, in connexion with the Queen VICTORIA Jubilee celebration, secured, with some municipal aid, 26 *mou* of land, amongst the low hills about

a mile from the Bund, for a recreation ground. This land, which is called "Victoria Park," has been laid out and arranged for tennis, cricket, and football grounds; a pavilion has been erected; and the park serves admirably for the purpose for which it was intended. The grounds and the extra-Concession roads, some 15 to 20 miles in extent, are kept up by private subscription and occasional grants from the Municipal Council.

(h.) MUNICIPAL.—Nothing extraordinary has been done in the administration of the British Concession during the decade; but the streets have been kept in good condition and the Concession well lighted, and the sanitary and police departments have been well looked after. A fire-engine was bought by the Municipal Council in 1896. An attempt to establish an abattoir and laundry in 1899, under municipal control, was unsuccessful. The rapid shoaling of the river has made it possible to extend the Bund along the whole Concession frontage, at a reasonable cost, as noted under (g.).

(i.) THE WATER APPROACHES.—The Yangtze River continued to show the sudden and startling changes that it has shown in the past—such changes as large rivers subject to great and sudden rises must make as they rush through great alluvial plains on their way to the sea. The usual tearing away of banks, rapid deposit of silt, and consequent change of channels went on throughout the decade, necessitating changes of lights along the river (noted under section (j.)) and of the position of hulks in the port of Chinkiang. The Harbour Master, Captain C. H. PALMER, who has made the map of the port which accompanies this Report, has supplied the information for this and the next section.

The silting up of the foreshore, along the British Concession and above, has been going on steadily since 1895, and has necessitated the re-mooring of the three hulks lying off the Concession. Messrs. JARDINE, MATHESON, & Co.'s hulk *Oriosa*, which was originally only 280 feet from the Bund, was moved four times, and is now moored 815 feet from the Bund. Messrs. BUTTERFIELD & SWIRE's hulk *Cadiz*, originally 240 feet from the Bund, was shifted twice, and now lies 638 feet from the Bund. Mr. GEORGE MCBAIN's hulk *Georgietta*, originally 200 feet from the shore, was dropped down stream 50 feet, and re-moored 340 feet from the Bund. The China Merchants Steam Navigation Company's hulk *Express*, which had been moored in a fine position for years, below the entrance to the Grand Canal, only 80 feet from the shore, was hauled out 40 feet in November 1900; this change was not made, however, on account of the shoaling of the river, but because Messrs. GREAVES & Co.'s hulk *Pingon* had been moored just above the *Express* in June 1900. Messrs. MELCHERS & Co., agents for the Norddeutscher Lloyd and Hamburg-America Companies, had their hulk *Bremen* moored in June 1890, just below the Custom House, and above the entrance to the Grand Canal, at a distance of 269 feet from the shore, and connected with the shore by a jetty—as are all the other hulks mentioned above.

In 1901 the Yangtze rose abnormally high, owing to an exceptional rainfall during the month of July, which was the heaviest on record at this port for many years, and amounted to 18.65 inches. Several godowns were flooded and much damage done to their contents. The low-lying land on either bank of the river was flooded for miles, crops were ruined, houses, cattle, and human beings were swept away, and much suffering ensued. The river

rose here to the height of 20 feet 6 inches, which is 2 feet higher than for many years before. Much damage was done to Native shipping, and steam-launch traffic had to be suspended for a time along the Grand Canal. At the site of an old entrance to the canal, on the north bank of the river, a temple was taken down, to prevent it from being washed away.

The average annual rainfall for the decade was 42.43 inches, July showing 8.35 inches, and December 1.05 inches—respectively the highest and lowest monthly average.

(j.) LIGHTS, BUOYS, AND BEACONS.—There were 11 lights under the control of the Chinkiang office at the beginning of 1892; they were all fixed dioptric sixth-order lights. Owing to changes in the channel, or to the washing away of the banks making the position of the lights unsafe, it was necessary to change the position of no less than five of the lights during the decade, viz.:—

North Tree Light.—Shifted five times, from 200 to 400 yards.

Cooper Bank Light.—Shifted twice, the second time 1,250 yards. As this last change brought the light too far inland from the danger intended to be marked, a boat was hired temporarily, and moored off the north-east extremity of Cooper Bank on 1st August 1897, from which the light was exhibited, instead of from the shore beacon; and this boat was replaced by the permanent Cooper Bank Light-vessel on 15th July 1898.

Pei-sin-chow Light.—Shifted 88 yards.

Bethune Point Light.—Shifted 200 yards.

Mud Fort Light.—Shifted 370 yards.

In addition to the substitution of a light-vessel at Cooper Bank for the old beacon-light, two new light-vessels have been secured and moored—one on 20th January 1899, showing a bright 6th-order light, at Gallows Channel, to mark the southern entrance to a new channel to the southward of Wade Island; and one on 2nd February 1901, showing a red seventh-order light, 2 cables to the southward of Rosina Rock; and the Silver Island Crossing Range Lights, one bright and one red, sixth order, were exhibited on 22nd April 1901, to mark the north channel round Silver Island, just below Chinkiang city. There are, therefore, at date, 11 beacon-lights and three light-vessels under the care of this office.

While the Cooper Bank Light-vessel was under repairs in 1901, the temporary boat was run into, dismasted, and otherwise damaged, by the lorch *Haining*, on 8th July; and, after being repaired, was again dismasted in a typhoon, on 4th August. The Rosina Rock Light-vessel was twice struck by large timber rafts and swept from her moorings—on 18th September and 10th December 1901.

The following brief summary of attacks on beacons and light-vessels shows that the Lightkeeper's life is not so monotonous and peaceful as outsiders think it is:—

1892.—November.—Attempt made to force an entrance into Keeper's hut at Mud Fort. One of the attacking party had a finger chopped off, and the party fled.

1896.—25th August.—Thieves landed and stole \$200 worth of property from the buildings at Wade Island.

1898.—15th May.—Thieves broke into the lighthouse and dwelling at Tung-lo-tu, and stole clothing, money, light stores, and oil.

9th September.—The Pei-sin-chow station was raided at midnight and the Lightkeepers tied to trees. The thieves stripped the station of everything moveable, including oil, stores, spare gear, and even the lamps from the lantern.

1901.—25th April.—The Gallows Channel Light-vessel was raided about midnight, the Lightkeepers badly treated, and all their property taken away, as well as light stores, oil, lamps, and some of the outfit of the boat.

The light-stations suffered considerably from the flood during the summer of 1901, as most of them were flooded to a depth of from 2 to 3 feet. The light-huts and dwellings collapsed at some, and the Keepers had to transfer themselves, families, light stores and gear, etc., to sampans anchored at the beacons.

(k.) UNHAPPY OCCURRENCES.—Since the memorable *Ko-lao-hui* movement, in 1891, there has not been, locally, any event to attract more than a passing notice. There have been no riotous demonstrations against Foreigners; so that residents have had comparative tranquillity during the 10 years under review. During the war with Japan the Yangtze region remained outside the field of military activities. The only commotion caused at that time was on account of the excited interest which the Natives took in the battles fought in the North, as reported by the newspapers or told by people at street corners. The effect produced by the Boxer disturbances in 1900 was scarcely more serious, though, after the receipt of the alarming telegrams from the North in July, it was thought advisable for the Foreign women and children to leave the port, and an order was issued to their nationals to that effect by the Senior British Naval Officer in conjunction with the British and United States Consuls. There was, in the beginning, an attempt made by Boxer emissaries to enlist followers and to advance their cause locally; but their efforts failed utterly in the face of the prompt measures of precaution ably carried out by the local government. Prominent among those to whom the public is indebted for the maintenance of order and security is HUANG SHAO-CH'UN (黃少春), the distinguished occupant of the post of Admiral of the Yangtze, who happened to be then a temporary resident at the port. Not only did he keep his troops well in hand, but by timely negotiations succeeded even in making an ally of the chief of the band of salt smugglers operating round Yangchow, so as to prevent this most dangerous element from falling an easy prey to the alluring overtures of the Boxers. This salt smuggler, commonly known as HSÜ LAO-HU (徐老虎), has since rendered much valuable service to the local authorities in capturing secret society men, pirates, and murderers, and holds, at present, an office of authority, invested with the brevet rank of a captain in the army.

Death by drowning, occasioned by the accidental capsizing of passenger-boats in a squall, or by the overturning of sampans engaged to land passengers from steamers anchoring in mid-stream, is, unfortunately, of no rare occurrence. In the autumn of 1899 a Customs officer, while boarding a river steamer, happened to pass near the spot where a sampan full of female passengers was capsized by a large boat running into it under full sail. The Customs gig

hastened to rescue the women, who rendered the work not only difficult, but dangerous, for the Boatmen, by their resistance. They refused to listen to the Boatmen, and, clinging to each other, asked to be left alone, as they preferred to die. However, no attention was paid to their appeals, and they were all rescued, in spite of their vigorous protests. It was afterwards learned that the women belonged to the family of a Manchu official of high rank resident in Nanking. To rescue life from drowning, the "Life-saving Association" (救生局) maintains many boats here, as well as at other places along the Yangtze. These boats do good work, and hundreds of people are rescued every year.

In January 1901 the British s.s. *Ngankin*, while attempting to go alongside her hulk, instead of reversing her engines, went full speed ahead, through some mistake, crashing into the jetty connecting Messrs. JARDINE, MATHESON, & Co.'s hulk with the shore, and sinking a number of junks, laden with produce, that lay at anchor under the shelter of the jetty. The steamer got out of the unpleasant position comparatively unharmed.

(l.)

(m.) PEKING DEGREES.—Inclusive of one held in honour of the 60th anniversary of the Empress Dowager's birthday, in 1894, there were, in all, four examinations at Peking during the decade. Among the competitors from Kiangsu province, a native of the city of Tungchow, on the north bank of the mouth of the Yangtze, named CHANG CHIEN (張 簪), won the *chuang-yüan* (狀元) degree at the special examination in 1894. The successful scholar remained for a time in Peking, filling a position in the Hanlin College. In 1899 he left the capital and returned to his native city, where he directed his energies to schemes to benefit the place. Tungchow being the centre of an important cotton-growing district, he induced capitalists to subscribe funds for the erection of a steam factory for making cotton cloth. In this way he has become prominent in the literary and the commercial world. Latterly he has also been appointed a member of the Shanghai Bureau of Commerce (商務總局).

(n.) LITERARY MOVEMENTS.—Chinkiang and the largest cities in the adjoining districts have no public libraries. If current report can be credited, previous to the devastations wrought by the Taiping rebels the cities of Yangchow and Chinkiang possessed libraries, named Wên Hui Ko (文匯閣) and Wên Tsung Ko (文宗閣) respectively, which were established during the reign of the Emperor K'ANG HSI. The two establishments are said to have possessed a highly valued collection of books on science, history, etc., consisting of several thousand volumes, donations of the above-named monarch and of the Emperor CHIEN LUNG. On the fall of the two cities the rebels set fire to the buildings and the collections were destroyed.

In 1895 the then Prefect of the city, named WANG JÊN-K'AN (王仁堪), a native of Fukien, and a graduate of distinction, succeeded in rousing the interest of the gentry enough to obtain the requisite funds for the erection of a building, inside the city, to accommodate a number of students while preparing for the provincial examinations. The Prefect visits the place at intervals, to find out what progress the students are making, and eventually selects the more promising to compete for the *hsiu-tsai* and *chü-jên* degrees. The current expenses are met by annual subscriptions.

Due, mainly, to the initiative of the present Nanking Viceroy, a school for the teaching of Western languages was opened at the end of 1900, in a street near the British Concession of Chinkiang. The pupils in attendance in the spring of 1901 did not number a dozen, and their master did not profess to be more than a student himself in the subject he was teaching. Improvement is hoped for when increased patronage will admit of the appointment of a better-paid and more competent teacher.

(c.)

(p.) THE PROVINCE.—I have nothing to add to the geographical description of Kiangsu, with especial reference to its northern portion, given in the Chinkiang Decennial Report for 1882-91.

(q.) NATIVE SHIPPING.—It is difficult to give a complete and accurate report on the Native shipping, as the craft comprised under this denomination are not under the control of this office, and there is, therefore, no reliable data regarding them available. These craft can be classified into two principal divisions: 1°. Sea-going Junks; 2°. Junks for River and Inland Navigation only.

1°. *Sea-going Junks*.—Sea-going junks are subdivided into Foochow and Ningpo junks. They import joss paper, sea blubber, soft-wood poles, and coffin-wood; and export grain, principally rice. In May the Ningpo junks come loaded with yellow fish (黃魚) in ice. These junks are not allowed to anchor within the harbour limits, and they have to discharge their cargo into cargo-boats, which bring it up to Chinkiang, this regulation having been made by the Chinese authorities at the time of the Taiping Rebellion, when the crews of these junks proved to be a troublesome and dangerous element. The capacity of these junks is from 300 to 6,000 piculs; the cost of building is about \$2 per picul; and the crews consist of from 7 to 16 men. About 1,000 of these sea-going junks come yearly to this port.

2°. *Junks for River and Inland Navigation only*.—Those for the river are generally bigger and stronger, and quite safe. Their capacity varies from 300 to 2,000 piculs; the number of their crews, from 3 to 16 men; and their cost of building is about \$1.50 per picul. They are used for carrying cargo as well as passengers. The charge for freight is according to the nature of the cargo, and varies from \$0.10 to \$0.80 per bale or chest. Travellers can hire them for \$1.50 to \$3 a day, according to the size of the boat. Amongst the junks for the river are comprised the Chinkiang cargo-boats, which are employed in discharging and loading the sea-going steamers which frequent this port; they have a fixed tariff, according to the size of package, distance carried, and so forth. They sometimes make short trips in inland waters, and take cargo at about 80 cash per picul. There are at present 62 of these cargo-boats, their number having been increased by 12 boats in the last 10 years. The junks for inland navigation are the most numerous, there being over 1,000 of them which come yearly to Chinkiang. They bring down all kinds of produce from the interior, and take back Foreign goods; some of them are also used as passenger-boats. Their prices are generally very moderate; for instance, they will carry 100 piculs of lily flowers from Po-chou (亳州) to Chinkiang (450 li) for 12,000 cash. Their capacity is from 20 to 1,400 piculs; the cost of building is about \$1.50 per picul; and their crews number from 2 to 9 men. As a rule, all these junks are owned by the master or laodah, who lives on board with his family.

Owing, perhaps, to the rarity of accidents, there is no Native marine insurance in Chinkiang. There is a sort of protection society against thieves, called Piao Chu (驛局), from which merchants, having valuable cargo to transport, can obtain men to guard it, and are entitled to receive the full value of their cargo in case it should be stolen. The fee is 1 to 1½ per cent. of the declared value.

The list of the different types of junks given in the last Decennial Report was so accurate, and needs so few alterations, that anyone desiring more detailed particulars about junks is referred to that list.

(r.) BANKS AND BANKING.—There are no Foreign banks functioning regularly at Chinkiang; but the Imperial Bank of China has had an agent here since 1897, whose business is chiefly with the Taotai and the China Merchants Steam Navigation Company.

Of Native banks of importance, there are about 25. Their chief business is advancing funds to commercial enterprises (such as silk filatures), to merchants, and to shops of good standing. Their business connexion is chiefly with Shanghai, Soochow, Yangchow, Hsu-chou, Naiking, Po-chou, Wuhu, and Kiukiang.

The rate of interest charged or paid by these local banks is, of course, not uniform. The interest charged on loans, with best security, is 8 or 9 mace a month per Tta 100, while the interest on deposits is only from 4 to 6 mace a month.

The amount of business done by a large bank at Chinkiang varies between Tta 300,000 and Tta 500,000 per annum. During the past 10 years there has been a period of great prosperity and one of depression. During the war with Japan, in 1895, the neutralisation of the Yangtze Valley, which diverted the trade of the North to the river ports, and the monopoly of the grain export enjoyed for a time by this place, caused the trade of Chinkiang to assume unprecedentedly large proportions, and the banks shared in the general prosperity. The bad years for the banks were 1898, 1899, and especially 1900, when Chinkiang banks passed through a crisis such as had not been seen here for years. During the summer of 1900 disquieting rumours of the advance of the Boxer hordes along the Grand Canal, and the fear that the atrocities committed by those bandits in the other parts of the Empire might be repeated in the Lower Yangtze, made merchants very chary of risking money in commercial ventures. The exodus of Foreign women and children from the Yangtze ports did not tend to reassure the people, and well-to-do Natives were not slow to follow the example of Foreigners in sending their families and valuables to places further south. By the beginning of August the unrest had become a panic, and trade came to a standstill. People who had deposits at the banks hastened to withdraw them, demanding payment in dollars, until at last, on the 5th August, the banks refused to pay out, and money became almost unobtainable. Then a number of firms collapsed, with heavy liabilities, the total indebtedness to the banks amounting to about Tta 200,000, about half of which has, however, been since recovered.

(s.) CHINESE POSTAL AGENCIES.—There are 18 Native postal hongts at this port, which are all registered at, and send and receive their mail bags to and from Treaty ports through, the Chinese Imperial Post Office. The hongts have their head offices in Shanghai, and agencies at all

the principal places along the Yangtze, as far up as Hankow. A few examples of the rates of postage charged on letters from Chinkiang will be enough to show that they are high: to Shanghai, 32 cash; to Kiangyin, 36 cash; to Tungchow, 50 cash; to Peking or Canton, 100 cash; to Mengtze, 200 cash; and to Tai-yuan-fu (太原府), 240 cash.

Chinkiang is an important place for these postal hongs, as it is the centre for mails to and from Yangchow and all places along the Grand Canal, as far as Tai-erh-chuang to the north, K'ai-feng and intermediate places to the north-west, and Hsing-hua, Tung-tai, Hai-chou, etc., to the north-east; and the hongs get much of this mail matter, notwithstanding the fact that the Imperial Post Office stands ready to forward it at lower rates. From 40 to 60 men from the various hongs appear at the Imperial Post Office daily, on the arrival of the steamers, to receive their closed mails, which they open at once, and exchange and sort before leaving the compound. Local delivery begins at once, and the letters for other places are carried away by the head-men to their hongs. The different hongs make up mails every morning for Yangchow and send them off early, by two men who cross the river to the north bank and go overland to Yangchow. Their mails for places on the canal above Yangchow are sent from Yangchow, every other day, by Native boats, as they make no use of the steam-launches. From Shao-pai (邵伯), mails are sent to Hsing-hua (興化), Tai-chou (泰州), and Tung-tai (東臺)—and from Huai-an (淮安), to Fu-ning (阜甯), Yen-ch'eng (鹽城), and Hai-chou (海州)—by boatmen, who deliver and collect letters in all these places for the Native postal hongs at regular charges. The cost of sending letters in this way is high, and as the extension of the Imperial Post Office goes on, it would seem that the Native postal hongs must give up the business.

For ordinary letters, these Native offices accept no responsibility and give no compensation in case of loss, but they make inquiries and trace the missing letter, if possible. Letters and parcels may be registered, however, and such registration entitles the sender to compensation in case of loss; contents of parcels must be declared at time of posting. The fee is generally an amount equal to the ordinary postage. In case of letters containing drafts, cheques, and other valuables, which must be closed and sealed in the forwarding office, the fee is about 7 cash for every dollar of the declared value. The fee for registering is always paid in advance, while the postage is generally collected on delivery of the letter. While compensation is paid for a registered letter or parcel which may have been lost, it is not usually for the full value, as it is customary for the owner to bear about one-third of the loss.

The hongs do a very large business in forwarding parcels by the steamers to Treaty ports and landing-stages. These parcels consist of Foreign imports, presumably Duty paid, and Native produce. They are generally made up into small parcels, for convenience of handling and hiding on board the steamers, and are entrusted to members of the crew. The contents of all such parcels are declared, and a heavy fee is paid, which ensures the owner partial compensation in case of seizure by the Customs. The rule appears to be that, when such parcels are seized and confiscated, the sender and the consignee shall each bear 20 per cent. of the loss, and the postal hong the balance—60 per cent. As the forwarding hongs supply their agents with a list of parcels and their contents, a few hours after a Customs searching party has made a seizure, the petition-box will be filled with petitions, giving full particulars of the goods seized, from the hongs or from men put forward by them to personate the owners of the goods.

There is no regular Wên Pao Chu (文報局) here; but the work usually done by it for the yaméns is performed by the China Merchants Steam Navigation Company, which forwards all despatches by its own steamers, as far as possible.

The postal agencies have recently—since the increase in the number of Chinese newspapers published—been able to add considerably to their income by selling newspapers. They secure subscribers in their district; get the papers in bulk from Shanghai; and distribute them in the course of their rounds, when delivering and collecting mails, and make a profit of a few cash on each paper.

The Natives often mark letters "Urgent," and put a request on the cover that a special messenger be sent. In such cases a messenger is sent, and a fee of 800 cash for every 100 li travelled is collected from the recipient. Another common way of indicating that a letter is urgent is to burn one or more—sometimes all four—corners of the cover, and send it with feathers protruding from the holes.

The wages of the staff at these postal agencies in Chinkiang are said to be as follows: managers, \$8 to \$10 a month; senior letter-carriers, \$6 to \$8; junior letter-carriers, less, according to length of service. Food is supplied to all, and a barber's services are free to all.

(t.) THE CHINKIANG MARITIME CUSTOMS.—The only noteworthy change in the work of the Chinkiang Customs has been the assimilation of its practice to that of the coast ports. Formerly, goods exported to a Yangtze port, from Shanghai or from another Yangtze port, paid both the Export and Coast Trade Duties at the port of shipment; but since 1899 the river ports have been on the same footing as the coast ports—that is, goods have paid Export Duty only at the port of shipment and Coast Trade Duty at the port of discharge.

Although the trade and Revenue showed a large increase during the decade, the numerical strength of the Customs staff, Foreign and Native, was exactly the same—148—at the end of 1901 as in 1892. There were three fewer Foreigners in the Out-door staff, and three more Natives in the Revenue and Marine Departments.

(u.) Military.—After the outbreak in the North, in 1900, the military forces were increased, and up to the end of the summer of 1901 there were some 7,600 troops (Chinese and Manchu) stationed either within the walls of Chinkiang city or in the immediate vicinity.

The Manchus number 2,228, according to the last report; and of these, 576 are cavalry. With the exception of 500 men stationed at the North Gate, they are quartered in the Tartar city. These Manchus are commanded by a *Fu Tu-tung* (副都統), a Manchu Brigade General, whose chief is the Tartar General at Nanking. The Chinkiang Manchu soldiers appear to be wanting in discipline, and for about a year have been giving a good deal of trouble to the authorities.

The Commander-in-Chief of the Chinese troops is the Viceroy, the troops being now under the orders of two military and two civil officials. There were 2,500 soldiers quartered in and about the forts on and opposite Silver Island. The camps are chiefly on the south bank of the river, but there are also some on the north bank. Admiral HUANG (黃少春) had 2,000 men encamped outside of Chinkiang, east and south-east of the city. These troops were additional to the regular garrison, and were first stationed here during the

Boxer trouble in 1900; since the transfer of the Admiral to Fuhkien, they have been placed under the orders of Tu Taotai (杜燾), as *T'ung-ling*. General Wu (吳繼培), who holds the brevet rank of Brigadier General, has a camp of 500 soldiers on the top of the hill at the back of the British Concession. This officer has been since 1889 under the orders of the Taotai, and the protection of the Settlement was entrusted to him during the troublous times of 1900. The Taotai and the Prefect had each 200 men stationed at their respective yamens.

To the above-mentioned 5,400 regular troops, a band of 500 irregulars was added, in the summer of 1900, under the orders of an ex salt smuggler called HSÜ PAO-SHAN (徐寶山). It is reported that the Chinese garrison has been reduced lately by two-fifths.

The military defences of Chinkiang consist of several forts on Silver Island and on the north and south banks of the river, opposite the island. These forts appear to be well armed with Foreign guns, and they have a Foreign instructor attached to them. They, as well as all other fortifications on the Lower Yangtze, are under charge of the Admiral of the Yangtze, CHENG WÊN-PING (程文炳).

During 1900 and 1901 there were two or three Chinese men-of-war stationed at this place. The Chinese fleet at Kiangyin during 1900 consisted of three modern cruisers, a torpedo destroyer, a few old-fashioned cruisers, and some torpedo-boats. Several of the latter were employed during the summer of 1900 in towing junks loaded with arms and ammunition, bound up the canal, for the north and north-west.

Civil Administration.—The chief official at Chinkiang is the Taotai. He has jurisdiction over Changchow-fu, Chinkiang-fu, Tungchow, and Hai-mên-ting; and he is also Superintendent of Customs at this port.

The police force is under the authority of the Prefect. There are two police stations within the city, and there is a more important one in the suburbs. Besides this land police, the Taotai has a special river police station, situated by the river, a short distance below the British Concession. This station is now in the charge of CHOU TÄ-PIAO (周德標), a zealous and active official, who during the unsettled and anxious times of the summer of 1900 rendered invaluable help in keeping order in and about the Concession.

(v.) MISSIONARY SOCIETIES.—The Roman Catholic mission was established in Chinkiang in the year 1595, when the Jesuit father MATTEO RICCI arrived in Nanking, and began preaching the Christian doctrine, spreading it rapidly in all directions. The suppression of the Jesuit order, which became known in China in June 1775, caused the withdrawal of the missionaries from Chinkiang, who left the work in the hands of Native priests. In 1841, nine Native priests having sent a petition to Pope GREGORY XVI, three Jesuit fathers sailed from Brest, and on arrival in China, in 1842, took up again the work of the mission. Since then the mission has been growing steadily, and has now 11 establishments—one in Chinkiang and 10 in the district of Tan-yang (丹陽). The establishment in Chinkiang is the residence of the director of the mission, the Rev. Father CHEVALIER, who has jurisdiction also over the mission work in Nanking. The Roman Catholic mission has in Chinkiang a church, a school with 33 pupils, and an asylum for orphans; and has in Tan-yang-hsien 10 churches, two schools with 40 pupils

in all, and three asylums for orphans under the control of the Rev. Father CHIN (Chinese). The number of converts is 885, of whom 257 are in Chinkiang and 628 in Tan-yang-hsien.

The work of the China Inland Mission, in Chinkiang, was begun by the Rev. J. HUDSON TAYLOR in 1869, and consisted chiefly of school work and printing tracts and books. The mission had a house in the Native city and one in the Settlement. Subsequently this work was handed over to other missionary societies, and the mission kept up a station here chiefly for the convenience of missionaries passing through to and from stations in the interior. It has no schools and does very little evangelistic work in Chinkiang itself. In June 1892 a medical missionary was stationed at Chinkiang, and in 1898 a hospital was built for the Natives; this hospital is now directed by Dr. Cox, and has an average of 60 in-patients a year and about 4,000 out-patients. In 1899 a sanatorium was built for the missionaries requiring a change from their inland stations; it served also to give more accommodation to those passing through. Between 200 and 250 were accommodated at this mission house during and following the Boxer trouble. The China Inland Mission has a station in Yangchow, where it maintains two schools for boys and two for girls, a small dispensary, and two street chapels. In 1900 a large, commodious house was built there, for the use of newly-arrived female missionaries while learning the Chinese language.

The American Southern Baptist Mission was established in Chinkiang in 1883, by the Rev. M. J. YATES, and is now directed by the Rev. W. E. CROCKER. This mission has, in all, seven missionaries, including those at the Yangchow station, which is directed by the Rev. S. W. PIERCE. It has one chapel in Chinkiang, and a school with about 70 pupils (boys and girls, Christian and heathen). The number of converts is about 50.

The Methodist Episcopal Mission was established here, by the Rev. Mr. KÜPPER, about 15 years ago; it is now directed by the Rev. Mr. LONGDEN.

The American Presbyterian Mission (South) started its work in Chinkiang in 1887, under the direction of the Rev. J. E. BEAR; it has a school with about 30 pupils, and two dispensaries.

(w.) GUILDS.—The Taiping Rebellion caused the ruin and destruction of the guilds in Chinkiang, and it was only after Chinkiang became an open port, and trade increased, that these guilds were established again and, by degrees, grew in number and wealth.

There are now eight guilds in Chinkiang, viz., the Guild of the Five Northern Provinces (Shansi, Shensi, Honan, Shantung, and Chihli), the Kwangtung, the Fuhkien, the Kiangsi, the Chehkiang, the Lü-chou, the Hsin-an, and the Ching-tai Guilds—the last three being guilds of Anhwei merchants.

These guilds are maintained either by the income from their houses and lands or by contributions—or, rather, taxes—levied on the merchants belonging to the province of the guild, who are made to pay a certain per-centage on the goods which they export or import, or on the profits derived from their trade in the port, if they have a place of business here. For instance, a northern merchant, having a shop in Chinkiang, will have to pay to his guild 3 cash to the tael on the daily gross receipts. These taxes are levied once a month (on the 2nd) from resident and daily from visiting merchants, any fraud in collecting or paying the money due being severely punished. A chairman or, sometimes, two managers are appointed, to

look after the interests of the guild, a fixed salary and lodgings being given to them by wealthier guilds, like the Kwangtung. Besides these, each guild has one or two accountants, whose duty is to collect the rents and contributions and make the necessary payments; these men are either engaged at a fixed salary (4,000 cash per month being given to them by the Guild of the Five Northern Provinces) or selected from amongst the wealthiest and most influential members. Once a month the accounts are audited and passed in a meeting and posted up for inspection. No money or property of the guild can be disposed of without previous discussion and approval of the whole guild. When a general meeting is called, penalties are provided for those members who fail to come without good reasons.

The Kwangtung Guild, being the wealthiest, has burial grounds, where poor natives of the province are buried at the expense of the guild; it has also rules providing for different charities, such as assisting widows to take the bodies of their deceased husbands back to their homes. The other guilds have adopted similar rules, which will become effective when sufficient funds are available. Theatricals are held in the guild theatres, which are paid for by private subscriptions, not from the funds of the guild; and the same rule applies to the *Yü-lan-hui* (孟蘭會), "Departed Spirits Festival." A temple is generally included in the premises of every guild.

The Kwangtung guild-house is owned and maintained by two different guilds, composed of the merchants from Kuang-chou-fu (Canton) and Ch'ao-chou-fu (Swatow). Both are very prosperous, and the Kwangtung guild-house is the best in Chinkiang.

The Lü-chou (Anhui) Guild was established during the Japanese war, by rice merchants from that region, who rushed to Chinkiang after the export of rice was prohibited at Wuhu but allowed at Chinkiang. When the rice trade was again permitted at Wuhu, most of the merchants went home, and the guild maintains a very feeble existence.

(x.) CELEBRATED OFFICIALS.—The present Chinese Minister to the Court of Berlin, LÜ HAI-HUAN (呂海寰), had held the post of Taotai at Chinkiang for some years, and it was during his tenure of that office that he was selected for his present appointment.

WANG JEN-K'AN (王仁堪), a *chuang-yüan* graduate from the city of Foochow, filled the post of Prefect at Chinkiang for about two years. While in this position he did much lasting good to the place, and his name will be gratefully remembered. From here he was transferred to Soochow, where he died.

HUANG SHAO-CH'UN (黃少春), the distinguished Admiral of the Yangtze, had, for military reasons, his head-quarters at this port for nearly three years, and won for himself the esteem and affection of the people.

In the memory of living men, the city of Chinkiang has not been privileged to furnish individuals who have won distinction for either great learning or for prowess on the battle field. Perhaps one name may be mentioned, as universally known and esteemed, whose owner has not done anything remarkable in art or literature, but who has simply given proof of his love for mankind—YEN TSO-LIN (嚴作霖) is the name of this Chinese philanthropist. Born in Chinkiang, of parents of moderate means, he fled for refuge from the rebels to Yangchow, where he established his home. In his early years he commenced to do charitable

work among the needy, on occasions of floods, fires, or other public calamities. His appeals for help to the wealthy have always been readily responded to, his name being a guarantee for the proper use of relief funds. The titles of honour offered him by the Government have always been firmly declined by him. In the spring of 1901 he was directed, by Imperial orders, to proceed to Shensi, to superintend the distribution of relief in the vast regions there afflicted with famine.

(y.)

(z.) THE FUTURE.—The conservative estimate of the future possibilities of trade at Chinkiang made in the Decennial Report for 1882-91 has been more than realised. During the decade just ended, trade has flourished and increased, in spite of the further development of trade at Wuhu and of the opening of Nanking; and I see no reason why Chinkiang should not, in the ordinary course of events, share in any further improvement in China's trade. The situation of the port, at the entrance to the Grand Canal, gives it better facilities for communication by water with the far interior than are possessed by any other port on the Yangtze below Kiukiang. Any improvement in the canal will increase those facilities for the cheap and easy transportation of goods to and from the interior. If any arrangement should be made by which, under the Inland Steam Navigation Rules, steam-launches, which now only carry passengers and tow boats carrying passengers, could carry cargo and tow boats with cargo, without too heavy charges and vexatious delays at the Likin stations, the trade of the port would be still further benefited. Chinkiang also stands to win further advantages if a railroad to the North should start from the port or pass through it.

In conclusion, I must add that, having assumed charge of this office after the date on which the Report was due, I have had little time for original research for material, and that I am greatly indebted to Mr. FARAGÓ (Commissioner) for the data left by him; and to Messrs. DE LA TOUCHE, L. DE LUCA, and PICHON (Assistants), Captain PALMER (Harbour Master), Mr. WASHBROOK (Postal Officer), and to several members of my Chinese staff, for contributions to and assistance in preparing this Report.

W. F. SPINNEY,

Commissioner of Customs.

CUSTOM HOUSE,

CHINKIANG, ^{31st December 1901.}
26th April 1902.

SHANGHAI.

DECENNIAL REPORT, 1892-1901.

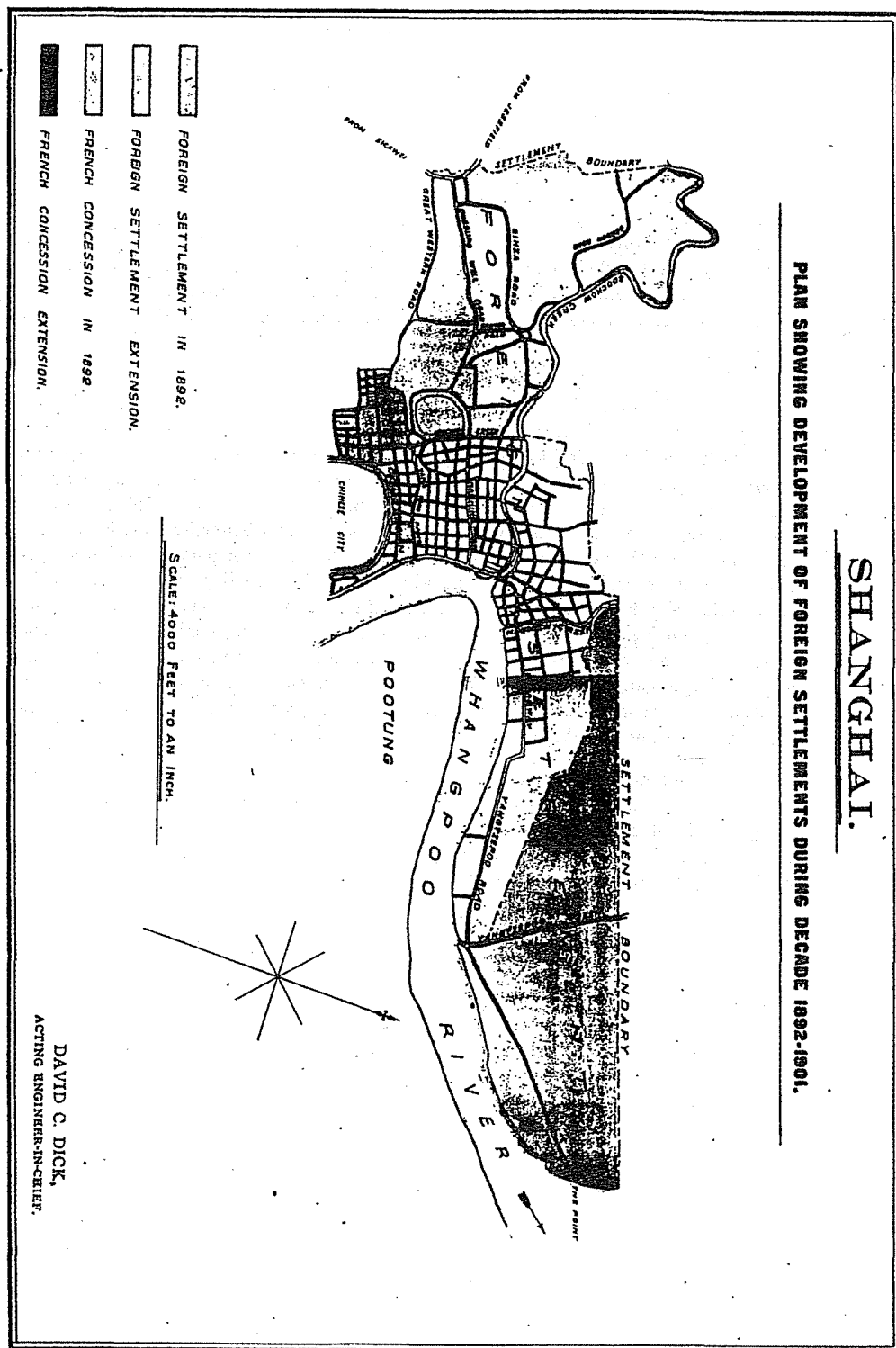
(a.) The story of the past 10 years in Shanghai is one of satisfactory growth and progress. Looking at the period as a whole, the increase in the trade of the port has shown that healthy advance which springs, not from periodic booms, but from a steadily enlarged consumption by the Chinese of Foreign goods, and a willingness on their part to bring forward for export greater quantities of Native produce in payment for Imports consumed. The extension and improvement of the Settlement has, of course, been the direct result of commercial prosperity, aided, at every turn, by the increasing local patriotism on the part of those who have unselfishly devoted their time to the work of the Municipal Council. On 17th November 1893 a milestone on this road of progress was passed, when the 50th anniversary of the opening of Shanghai to Foreign trade, in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty of Nanking, was celebrated by the Chinese and Foreign community in the Settlement. It was then that old residents recalled the early days of the hong life and the junior mess; compared the beautiful Bund of 1893 with the tow-path that wound along muddy banks in the early days; and prophesied a repetition of the growth and development that had marked the first 50 years of the port's life. Already the first decade of the five has nearly passed, and, under the reviewer's eye, shows to its credit its full share of what the most sanguine believer in Shanghai's future could have hoped for.

Even to the casual observer of the past decade, the events that stand out most prominently are the China-Japan war, with the consequent recognition of Japan as a first-class Power, and the anomalous struggle which we are content to call the Boxer rising in the North, with its well-known train of horrors and sufferings, and its re-casting of the relations between China and the other Powers on the basis of the Peace Protocol signed at Peking on 7th September 1901. Of course, these two unfortunate events exerted a strong influence upon the trade of Shanghai, as they did upon that of all the Treaty ports throughout the Empire, either through actual interference with the channels of trade or ruinous suspension of confidence in the general markets concerned; and in this connexion they will be dealt with in another part of this Report.

The only item of local historical interest in connexion with the struggle that grew out of the Korean question was the case which is commonly referred to as that of "The Two Japanese Spies." But before dealing with this, it seems opportune to include here a notice of the political murder of the Korean rebel KIM OK-KUN, which occurred on 28th March 1894, and which, though not connected with the actual struggle between China and Japan, was one link in the long chain of events which preceded the outbreak of hostilities in the following summer.

SHANGHAI.

PLAN SHOWING DEVELOPMENT OF FOREIGN SETTLEMENTS DURING DECADE 1892-1901.



KIM OK-KUN, the leader of the rebellion against the Korean Government in December 1884, was decoyed from Yokohama to Shanghai by his fellow-countryman HONG TRYONG-ON, who murdered him on the day after their arrival here, in a Japanese hotel at the corner of the North Soochow and North Honan Roads. It was a premeditated, cold-blooded act, committed, as appeared later from the assassin's own testimony, under direct encouragement from, and with the hope of reward at the hands of, the King of Korea. After an investigation by the local officials, the assassin was surrendered, according to Treaty provisions, to Mr. HSU, Korean Consul at Tientsin, who had come to Shanghai for the purpose of taking him to Seoul, and, with the body of his victim, was despatched to his native land to receive the plaudits and reward of his Sovereign. Here Shanghai's connexion with the affair ceased; but few will forget the shudder which passed over the place, less than a fortnight afterwards, when news was received of the barbarous way in which the murdered man's body had been quartered and distributed.

Then followed, in the summer, the second incident in this short but unfortunate series of events bearing upon the troubles in Korea. It was on the 13th of August 1894 that two Japanese, named KURSUWUCHI and FUKUHARA, were arrested as "spies," by the French municipal police, on a warrant issued by the French Consul General at the instance of the Shanghai Magistrate. As war between China and Japan had already been declared, and the United States had yielded to Japan's request "to afford friendly offices for the protection of Japanese subjects in China," the French Consul General, after detaining the "spies" for 24 hours, handed them over to the United States Consul General. After holding them for more than two weeks, this official, under instructions from Washington, surrendered them to the Taotai to be tried. They were taken to Nanking, subjected to a secret trial, and immediately afterward publicly beheaded. The action of the United States Government, in delivering the men to the Taotai, has been, on the one hand, severely criticised, and on the other hand, defended, on the ground that it was not taken until the Secretary of State had consulted with the Japanese Minister at Washington, who had answered that there was nothing else to do, and had also been assured by the Chinese Minister that there would be no final disposition of the case until the United States Minister, who was then absent from Peking, had returned to his post. However, the fixing of responsibility in this matter has now become purely an academic exercise; whereas, at the time of the occurrence, another question arose, which affected vitally the interests of all Foreign Concessions in China. It was held by some that the method of securing the "spies" was a breach of the extra-territorial clauses of the Treaties, and would be used as a precedent for invading the rights of Foreign Concessions in any future war; but this view was refuted by a clear public statement of the fact that these men were arrested and delivered by order of Foreign officers.

Fortunately, on 25th July 1894 the community here was greatly relieved, from both the social and commercial standpoint, by the arrival of the information, from Mr. PAGET, British Chargé d'Affaires at Tokio, that the Japanese Government had "undertaken to regard Shanghai as outside the sphere of its warlike operations." Obviously, no source existed during the Boxer troubles of 1900 from which such an assurance of immunity from warlike operations could emanate, so that, owing to the peculiarly anomalous relationship in which Foreigners and Chinese stood to each other—neither knowing, and both fearing, the attitude which the other

might at any time assume,—great uneasiness reigned. In the case of the Chinese, it resulted in a wholesale exodus from Shanghai of thousands who believed safety depended upon their immediate return to their native places. Especially was this true of men from Ningpo. Mr. AGLEN, in the Shanghai Trade Report for 1900, says: "Apart from numbers of refugees who passed through on their way from northern ports, and the great influx of those who sought safety under Foreign administration in Shanghai, there was, for a period of about a fortnight, a great exodus of Ningpoese from Shanghai. Few who saw the densely packed steamers leaving day after day, for Ningpo and the river ports, could fail to be impressed by the sight. It is estimated that something like 80,000 persons left the port, many of whom returned when the scare was over." In the case of the Foreigners, this feeling of uncertainty and danger was intensified, in July, by the fright of many of their domestics at a most striking and peculiar circumstance, namely, the simultaneous clipping, one night, of the wings and feathers of poultry in fowl-yards scattered all over the Settlement. This the superstitious Natives considered was the work of a "paper man," and unmistakably heralded the arrival of the Boxers.

Early in the summer the necessity for counterbalancing such disquieting influences, and for providing more adequate defence for the Settlement, led to the strengthening of the old and the formation of three new companies of volunteers; American, Japanese, and Customs companies were formed, which, with the additions to the standing organisations, swelled the number in the corps to over 1,000 men. As the first two companies named were but provisionally formed, they were disbanded early in the autumn, as soon as quiet and confidence were restored. In December, however, the Japanese formed another company, of about 70 men, most of whom had served in the provisional organisation, and thus followed the Customs company in becoming a permanent unit of the corps. Although great activity in drilling and training prevailed throughout the trying summer, fortunately no active service was necessary; and soon the provisions made by the different Home Governments restored the disturbed sense of security.

When the first detachment of Indian troops arrived, about the middle of August, objections raised by some of the representatives of the other Governments to the landing of a British garrison, threatened, for a time, to bring on a permanent dead-lock and necessitate the despatch of the troops to the North. The objections, however, soon gave way to approval, and the following month saw German, French, and Japanese contingents stationed here. Throughout the autumn and winter these lent to Shanghai a martial appearance of such a cosmopolitan character as few cities, in either the East or West, have ever assumed. The British landed Sikhs, Gurkhas, Rajputs, Baluchis, a squadron of Jodhpur lancers, a pompom section of the Royal Artillery, and a squadron of Bombay cavalry; the Germans brought, at different times, detachments of the First and Second East-Asiatic Regiments; the French, infantry and light field artillery, with their Annamese auxiliaries; and the Japanese, a body of those neat, well-trained soldiers who have revealed themselves to the world within the last 10 years and won such unstinted praise and respect. The British, French, and Germans still maintain their garrisons.

Besides these two greater upheavals, there have been minor disturbances which, if not overshadowed by those of world-wide importance, would have assumed prominent places in the records of the decade. I refer to the wheel-barrow and the Ningpo Joss House riots.

The trouble with the wheel-barrow coolies, which occurred early in April 1897, resulted from an increase of their monthly license fee from 400 to 600 cash. It will remain as a memorable chapter in the year's history, for two distinct reasons: first, because of the rioting itself and the measures taken for defence; and secondly, because of the keen struggle which took place between the ratepayers and the Municipal Council before a settlement of the question was effected. The actual incidents followed one another in rapid succession. On 9th March the ratepayers, assembled in their regular annual meeting, voted to increase the monthly tax on wheel-barrow, after 1st April 1897, from 400 to 600 cash. When the time came, the coolies refused to pay the additional 200 cash, initiated a strike, and soon began to show signs of lawlessness. On Thursday—the 1st April—and on Friday small bands of them smashed some jinricshas and carts, and attacked a Foreign constable who tried to check their campaign against the traffic. Then, on Monday morning, followed the most serious demonstration of the week, “when a mob of between 700 and 800 men, armed for the most part with bamboos, and attended by a large crowd of more or less active sympathisers, marched from the French into the Anglo-American Settlement, by way of the Bund bridge over the Yangkingpang, and commenced a riot which it was at first believed had resulted in the death of two Natives, although no direct evidence was available on that point. . . . This was about 11 o'clock, and some gentlemen who happened to be in the Club rushed out to the assistance of the policeman, who was also reinforced by some others, including Inspector MATHESON and two Sikh troopers. It was then apparent that the mob was in a very nasty temper, and, after Inspector MATHESON had been seriously hurt about the legs, telephone messages were despatched for assistance.” A few minutes later the unarmed Foreigners were forced to take refuge in Mr. McBAIN's office, “the windows of which were at once smashed by bricks which the rioters had been allowed to collect in baskets, from some buildings in the course of demolition on the French side, and bring along. The Club verandah was strewn with brickbats. . . . With the arrival of reinforcements, the police were able to drive back the crowd somewhat; but so threatening was the situation, that the chairman of the Municipal Council requested Major BRODIE CLARKE to call out the volunteers, and landing-parties were solicited from the men-of-war. . . . With admirable promptitude, parties were landed from H.B.M.S. *Linnet* and *Plover* and the U.S.S. *Monocacy*, and guards posted at the British Consulate, General Police Station, and other important buildings, whilst the volunteers hurried to their assembly posts fully armed. . . . In the evening a meeting of Consuls was held to discuss the situation, and, in consequence of a council of war, it was resolved to keep the guards on duty in relief parties all night, whilst patrols were put out upon the outlying residential roads.” Except for a slight demonstration on Monday night, on the Yunnan Road Bridge, and innumerable rumours of attacks at different points the following day, the acts of violence had run their course.

On Wednesday morning the unexpected announcement that the Municipal Council had receded from its position, and was prepared to issue licenses at 400 cash, not only brought a swarm of jubilant coolies to the offices of the Council, but also aroused, to an unmistakable degree, the indignation of the ratepayers and the volunteers, who had—at no mean personal sacrifice, in many cases—been supporting the decisive stand they supposed the Council had taken. This feeling found expression that evening in the meeting assembled at the Astor House,

which passed a resolution in favour of collecting the additional fee from the 1st May instead of from the 1st July, as the Council had announced its intention of doing. Later, at the special meeting of the ratepayers on 21st April, an explanation of the agreement which the Consular Body had made—on Tuesday, the 6th—with the Taotai, in response to his request that the assessment of the additional fee be postponed until 1st July, led to the adoption of a resolution which, although in spirit condemning this concession to the strikers, as well as the action of the Municipal Council in making it, fixed the above date as the time for raising the license fee. With this action on the part of the ratepayers, and the uneventful enhancement of the tax on the day set, by both the Cosmopolitan and the French Municipal Councils, the affair was practically closed. In June, it is true, the Taotai, through the Consular Body, endeavoured to elicit from the Municipal Council an expression of their approval of the advanced compensatory scale of charges which had been formulated by the new Kiangpoh Tung-ying Guild; but he received, in reply, their refusal to deal in any way with a matter which should be privately regulated between the wheel-barrow coolies and those employing them.

A year and three months after the trouble with the wheel-barrow coolies Shanghai was again visited with a demonstration of riotous lawlessness, in connexion with the attempt made by the French municipal authorities to appropriate, for building and highway purposes, land that belonged to and was being used by the Ningpo Guild, for a cemetery and as a site for their joss house. Although the Cosmopolitan Settlement suffered some commercial inconvenience, by reason of the refusal of many Ningpoese to continue in Foreign employ until a settlement of the joss house question had been reached, the actual disturbances were confined to the French Concession. Some months earlier, it seems, the French Municipal Council had informed the Taotai of their intention of removing the Ningpo Joss House; and later, acting under the provisions of the Treaties of 1844 and 1858, which authorised the appropriation of Chinese-owned land in the Concession on payment of the assessed value to the owners, had made known to the representatives of the Ningpo Guild their intention of taking the plot, then in use as a cemetery and site for the joss house, for the purpose of erecting thereon a school and hospital for Chinese and of extending the Rue de Ningpo through to the Quai de la Brèche. As the Taotai had taken little or no notice of their announcement, and the guild officials had not come forward to claim the deposited funds and transfer the title, on Saturday, 16th July, men landed from a French cruiser took possession of the vacant space by the joss house on behalf of the French municipality. They began to raze the walls surrounding the cemetery. This desecration of hallowed ground of course aroused the Ningpoese to the high pitch of indignation and revengefulness that soon found expression in mob violence and attacks on Foreigners all over the Concession. The authorities had provided against such a contingency, by drawing men from the Italian cruiser *Marco Polo*, as well as from their own cruiser *l'Eclairneur* and the police and volunteer forces. By Sunday morning the mob had begun to make such free use of brickbats and spiked bamboo poles that, in repulsing the attack on the Namtao police station, the sailors were twice compelled to fire upon the Chinese, killing, as nearly as could be ascertained at the time, about 12 of them. Adding to this number those who were killed in the attacks on the joss house on Saturday, and those who died from the effects of wounds, the authorities estimated that the total amounted to between 15 and 20.

No serious disturbance occurred after Sunday noon, save some slight troubles in Hongkew, later in the week, which arose from attempts to compel some Ningpo washermen to cease working for Foreigners. On Sunday, when the crest of the trouble had just been passed, the Ningpo Guild issued a circular calling upon all Ningpoese in Shanghai, as a fitting expression of their indignation, to sever all connexions with Foreigners and to cease all business until a settlement had been arrived at. The concerted action which followed, on the part of the Native banks, the Ningpo men employed in Foreign firms, and the wheel-barrow and other coolies, practically tied up business for a few days, although the Native shops kept by these men craftily avoided loss by closing "all but one door." But the storm itself had spent its fury, and a settlement was soon arrived at.

Viceroy LIU K'UN-I, on hearing of the trouble, immediately appointed, as a committee to inquire into the circumstances attending the riot, Treasurer NIEH, Taotai Lo, and General TCHENG KI-TONG. They at once entered upon negotiations with the French Consul General, Count DE BEZAURE, looking to a settlement of the question whether the French had a right to condemn this property, in the light of a documentary promise made by the Consul General M. GODEAUX, after an almost identical riot in May 1874, that it should be held by the Chinese inviolate. All these negotiations were, however, soon rendered futile, by the production of a very pertinent document, whose existence seemed to have been forgotten by both parties to the controversy. It disclosed the fact that in 1878, when Viscount BRENIER DE MONTMORAND was French Minister at Peking, a settlement of the troubles in connexion with the riot of 1874 was concluded, which, after fixing the amount of indemnity to be paid by both parties, provided that: "It is hereby further agreed that the cemetery and house property of the Ningpo Joss House shall be for ever under the management of members of the Ningpo community, free from all questions of their being removed. Within the premises of the cemetery no road or drain shall ever be proposed to be made, nor shall house-building or planting of plants of any kind be ever allowed, so as to protect the buried coffins from being injured." This, of course, entirely closed the matter, and left the guild in peaceful possession of their property.

The treatment of many other events, which, by virtue of their importance, deserve places in the list of "Chief Occurrences," will be postponed, and taken up under the various sections of this Report where, by the subdivision of subjects, they more naturally fall. Among the events so classed may be mentioned the opening of the Woosung Railway; the starting of inland steam navigation and the opening of direct trade relations with Soochow and Hangchow; and numerous municipal improvements and changes in the Settlements during the period. But there has also been a growth or development in the country surrounding Shanghai, and a change in the condition of the people in the outskirts, which may well be noted here. Of course, much that was country 10 years ago has now been incorporated within the limits of the Settlements or largely built over with outlying residences; yet, beyond this belt, a change has been noticeable in the face of the country, where large tracts of land have been taken up with the new industry of raising foodstuffs and vegetables—such as cabbages, cauliflowers, onions, and the like—that were formerly used solely by Foreigners, but which are now largely consumed by the Chinese and are exported to Hongkong and the Chinese ports. Yet that change which is probably more noticeable than any other, in connexion with the outlying districts, is the marked improvement in the

dress and general appearance of the neighbouring villagers, who, in the march of progress, have gradually developed from a condition of squalor and scarcity to one of moderate comfort and plenty. Especially is this true in the case of the women and girls—merry and seemingly contented crowds of whom can be seen, any afternoon, leaving the mills out Sinza way or down the Yangtzepoo Road. For this improved condition of most of them, the establishment of large local industries is responsible.

(b.) Under this heading of "Changes in Trade," the subject-matter to be dealt with seems to divide itself naturally into the three subheads—

I. General status of trade during the different years of the period;

II. Change in the channels of trade and the conditions under which trade has been carried on; and

III. Changes in the commodities of trade.

I.—The first year of the decade—1892—is characterised as one of serious depression, largely the result of the financial crisis of that spring when "the speculations beyond China, and outside the ordinary lines of China commerce," caused heavy losses to firms and individuals and created a stringency markedly detrimental to business interests in the ports. The actual operations of trade were only temporarily curtailed.

In 1893 unprecedented fluctuations in exchange combined with various political and social events to continue the depression that had marked the Foreign commerce of Shanghai during the previous year. 1893 "opened with fairly good prospects, which grew gloomier as the season advanced, and closed more unsatisfactorily than at any time during its course."

When silver seemed at its lowest possible point, the action of the Secretary of State for India, in abandoning the minimum price of 1s. 4d. to the rupee fixed for Council drafts, depressed it still more, and completely disorganised trade here. During the summer of 1894 trade with Hongkong practically ceased, on account of the plague in that port, and with Corea and the northern ports it was interrupted by the outbreak of the China-Japan war. For merchants the year was distinctly bad.

Although the war continued into 1895, and temporarily destroyed all confidence on the local market, as well as closing the northern ports to the early spring shipments, yet, with the return of peace, trade recovered to a degree that showed larger figures for the gross and net trade of the port than during any previous year.

1896 was called the first "record" year of the decade. The trade increased; great activity appeared in manufacturing circles; the revivifying forces launched after the war began to show definite results; and everywhere evidences of a boom were manifest.

Another abnormal fall in the value of silver following upon Japan's adoption of a gold standard, great fluctuations in exchange, and political complications of a far-reaching nature exercised a restraining influence upon the tendency toward expansion which the figures for 1897 clearly show.

1898 went on record as a most disappointing year; the Spanish-American war, unrest and rebellion in many provinces, the overflow of the Yellow River, the large fire in Hankow, the shortage of the food supply, and a stringency in the local money market were among the chief causes assigned by the Commissioner writing the year's Report.

1899 witnessed a complete recovery from the depression of the two preceding years, and returned a volume of trade far in excess of any other year of the old century. Favourable conditions conduced to commercial and industrial expansion in a marked degree, and placed the year at the head of the list of the 10 reviewed.

1900 opened with great promise, showing an unsurpassed volume of trade and Revenue for the first quarter, but, of course, was forced below 1899 by the Boxer troubles which broke out in the spring. For a time, confidence and trade were entirely suspended; but in the end, when the healthy recovery had begun to manifest itself, it was found that contracts were being fulfilled and obligations met in a satisfactory manner.

What was said of 1899 applies to 1901. This last year China has been constantly before the commercial world, and has, by her Treaty with the Powers, been started on another stage of that journey toward Western civilisation which she seems so reluctant to pursue. If exchange had not fallen so rapidly during the past four months, a much larger amount of business would have been done.

These summaries, abstracted from the annual Reports of the Commissioners in Shanghai at the different periods, will carry more meaning if read in conjunction with the following table, which sets forth the gross and net values of the trade of Shanghai for the past 10 years. The column of per-centages which the Re-exports represent of the whole trade is added to show what a large proportion of the port's work is that of distribution. Comparison between Re-exports and Imports is not shown in the table. Net values and gross values alike include the Exports of local origin, and if these be subtracted, it will be found that from 75 to 81 per cent. of the Imports are re-exported. By comparing the total trade for 1892 and 1901, it will be readily seen what a wonderful growth has taken place during the decade, and, in the comparison, reason will be found for wondering whether this process, of nearly doubling the amount of trade, can be continued by similar periods in the immediate future. The 80 per cent. increase which these years have shown is a hard record for the old century to transmit to the new as its standard for future progress.

GROSS AND NET VALUES OF TRADE, 1892-1901.

YEAR.	GROSS VALUES.	NET VALUES.	PER-CENTAGE OF RE-EXPORTS.
	<i>Hk. Tn.</i>	<i>Hk. Tn.</i>	<i>Per Cent.</i>
1892.....	166,827,502	62,394,735	63
1893.....	177,017,836	67,974,027	62
1894.....	195,622,371	82,094,991	58
1895.....	218,733,283	94,990,342	57
1896.....	220,912,516	95,035,296	58
1897.....	205,678,990	101,832,962	62
1898.....	251,205,837	88,644,295	65
1899.....	306,701,390	124,604,719	59
1900.....	243,606,777	97,729,159	60
1901.....	298,454,780	118,425,776	60

NOTE.—Net value of the trade of the port = Value of Foreign and Native Imports less Re-exports, and value of Native Exports of local origin.

II.—The chief changes to be noted in the channels in which trade has moved are due to the opening of Soochow, Hangchow, and Kashing, in accordance with the terms of the Shimonoseki Treaty; the opening of inland waters to steam navigation; and the opening of Woosung as a Treaty port in 1898.

On 25th September 1896 the Su-Hang traffic was declared open, under a set of rules which permitted Foreign and Chinese owned steam-launches and junks to ply between these ports and Shanghai. The results of the first few years show no appreciable effects, either beneficial or injurious, upon the trade of this port. At first, a limited number of launches flying the British flag engaged in this trade; but eventually they all withdrew, except for an occasional isolated trip, and left the Japanese and Chinese in full possession of the field, so that now the trade is divided between these two flags in about the proportion of one to three. Apart from its commercial bearing, the establishment of these lines of steam-launches has brought the hill country within reach of Shanghai, and has thus made possible the opening of a summer resort at Mokanshan, where quite a number of Shanghai people now go to spend the hotter months of the year.

In April 1898, when access to the interior of China was made easier by the Tsungli Yamén's action in declaring the inland waters of the Empire open to steam navigation, steam-launches began running, under Inland Waters Special Certificates, between Shanghai and the points immediately inland from here. Also, two more pretentious boats—the British s.s. *Huangho* and the American s.s. *Kwangchi*—ran for a time to Tinghai (Chusan); but, after a few months trial, the experiment proved so unremunerative that they were taken off. The amount of cargo taken out of, or imported into, Shanghai under these rules is very trifling.

Thus far, the opening of Woosung as a Treaty port, which occurred in the same month (April 1898), has made no material difference to Shanghai; in fact, it is at present treated as though it were an integral part of this port, and vessels wishing to discharge there, whether too large to come up to Shanghai at all or requiring to lighten to cross the Bar, take out permits at the Shanghai office to discharge the cargo into lighters and bring it up to the wharves within the harbour limits. As yet, the only Customs work there consists of the supervision of the Native Customs by an Assistant recently appointed from the Shanghai staff. Bunding operations are being carried on by the Japanese; but, apart from this, no local improvements are being made, and it is not probable that any extended ones will be, for the port is never likely to be of any great importance, if the Hwangpu can be kept navigable for the larger vessels which now come up to Shanghai.

Following these changes by a year, came the introduction of the Yangtze Regulations of 1898, which went into effect on 1st April 1899, and unified the port practice of the different points on the river with that of the ports on the coast. Since that date ocean-going steamers have been allowed to proceed as far as Chinkiang, treating it as a coast port, and above there by exchanging their ships papers, either at Shanghai or Chinkiang, for the River Steamer Pass, which enables them to trade at the other ports on the same basis as steamers running regularly on the river.

A decided change has taken place during the period in the character of the Transit trade, viz, a decrease in the amount of traffic inward contemporaneously with a marked increase

in the value of the products brought down under *San-lien-tan*. These changes appear from a glance at the appended table. The causes producing them may, in some cases, be directly traced to alterations in the rules governing the trade, and in others, to extraneous events having a direct bearing upon it. For instance, the sudden expansion of the outward trade in 1896 is due, almost entirely, to the Cocoons brought from this province and from Chehkiang into Shanghai for use in the steam filatures, which were then running to their full capacity. From the 12th October of that year the Inward Transit Passes were issued at the Custom House instead of from the Taotai's yamén, as had been the custom before, and could thus be obtained in time to allow the goods to proceed inland within 24 hours. The shrinkage in the trade for the following year is attributed, in the case of the inward traffic, to the establishment of direct trade communications with Soochow and Hangchow, and in the case of the outward, is directly due to the return of the Cocoons to their figures for 1895. Unusual amounts of Kerosene Oil, Cotton Goods, Cotton Yarn, Coal, and Indigo made up the increase in 1898; while the falling off in the following year was ascribed to the extra facilities afforded inland trade by the Likin Bureau, and the consequent diversion of much merchandise which had formerly gone forward under Passes. Although it is needless to point out the detrimental forces at work on the trade of 1900, it is, however, worth noting that, in spite of the large decrease in the total amount of the inward business, there was an advance of nearly a million gallons in Russian bulk Oil.

TRANSIT TRADE, 1892-1901.

YEAR.	INWARD.			OUTWARD.		
	Passes issued.	Dues collected.	Value of Trade.	Passes issued.	Dues collected.	Value of Trade.
	No.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	No.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.
1892.....	58,239	27,159	1,236,766	435	22,983	1,153,161
1893.....	54,218	26,965	1,365,118	515	36,396	1,770,399
1894.....	35,885	22,725	1,066,453	539	45,700	2,311,301
1895.....	23,615	19,707	1,155,152	659	72,352	3,207,541
1896.....	20,435	24,186	1,161,403	785	97,599	5,818,127
1897.....	9,022	17,106	978,690	563	55,283	2,982,851
1898.....	23,220	37,636	2,395,704	609	61,461	2,843,181
1899.....	9,920	22,149	1,331,505	733	79,341	4,514,125
1900.....	9,478	12,521	682,332	789	72,135	4,269,868
1901.....	10,202	17,389	934,232	812	87,396	5,265,149

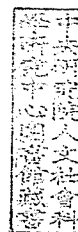
With the 10 years have come some decided and significant changes in the relative proportions of the whole trade of the port which the different countries have controlled, both in the shipping and in the commodities of import and export. In the case of the shipping, of the total increase of 71 per cent. in the tonnage of all shipping at this port, Great Britain has contributed nearly one-half, but her per-centage of the whole has fallen from 56 to 53 in the period. The most remarkable gains have been those made by Germany and Japan, the

former having more than trebled—305 per cent.—her tonnage, and the latter having increased hers to 262 per cent. of what it was in 1891; their advance, from 7 and 6 per cent. of the total to 16 and 12 per cent., respectively, is largely accounted for, in the case of Japan, by the opening of a Japanese line on the Yangtze in 1897 and the increase of the Japanese service between here and Japan and America, and, in that of Germany, by the establishment in 1899 of a German river line and subsequently of another to Kiaochoow. The development of American shipping, although still but about 4 per cent. of the whole, brings out an interesting comparison between the conditions of 10 years ago and the present, for at that time the total American tonnage reported appeared under the head of sailing vessels only, and for some years showed little or no steam shipping; then, with the arrival of the Pacific Mail Company's steamers in 1896, and the recent establishment of several new lines between points on the North Pacific coast and Asia, this country has taken its place as fifth on the list. On the other hand, the tonnage reported under the Chinese flag, although greater by almost 400,000 tons in 1899 than it was in 1891, appears reduced by over one-third in this year's Returns, on account of the number of steamers that were transferred to Foreign flags during the disturbances in 1900 and have not yet been restored to their proper registry. For the past year the following four flags reported most of the port's shipping:—

British	53 per cent.	Japanese	12 per cent.
German	16 "	Chinese	9 "

Before leaving this comparison, attention may be called to the fact that, although the number of sailing vessels has increased at almost exactly the same ratio as the number of steamers, the total tonnage of the former has decreased during the decade, while that of the steamers has increased 76 per cent.

Of course, a study of the proportions in which one port's trade is participated in by the different countries cannot have the value of a comparison based upon the entire trade of the Empire, yet, by reason of Shanghai's importance as a leading receiving and distributing centre for the whole northern and central parts of the country, its figures are usually fairly representative. The most striking feature of the Foreign Import trade is the marked decrease in the proportion of Imports from Great Britain, falling as they have, from the point, 10 years ago, when they represented 38 per cent. of the total, to their present mark of but 25 per cent. This is the only radical change shown in the comparative tables. The chief gains appear from the United States, 10 to 14 per cent. of the aggregate; and from Japan, 7 to 11 per cent. Of the Native produce exported or re-exported to Foreign countries, Great Britain takes far less than she did formerly—only 9 per cent., in fact, of the total, against her previous share of 23 per cent. in 1891; while the United States now absorbs 20 per cent. of the aggregate amount, in comparison with her 15 per cent. 10 years ago. Moreover, the full meaning of these changes will not be realised without taking into consideration the fact that both these Imports and Exports have more than doubled in the interim; and that, therefore, such a change really means that, while the actual amount of Exports, for instance, taken by Great Britain has decreased by about one-fourth, those sent to the United States have more than doubled. Much has been written and said, these past few years, about the proportional falling off of the British



trade with China, and recently the subject has commanded unusual attention from the various commercial houses and organisations, which have been searching for the influencing causes of this failure of the British trade to keep pace with the trade of the other countries and have been striving to apply remedial measures; but when it is remembered how large the gross amount of Great Britain's share in China's trade is, and how much more it means to increase this by a quarter, or a third, or a half, than it does in the case of countries controlling much smaller proportions, the change may, perhaps, not be so fraught with threatened destruction in the near future as many seem willing to believe.

While referring to the trade of the different countries with China, it seems appropriate to note that during the decade the Russian Consulate at Shanghai has been made a Consulate General, and to insert, for the purpose of reference, the following list of the Consular representatives who have served during the period as Doyens of the Consular Body:—

NAME	Nationality.	Period.
R. WAGNER.....	French..... to 10th June 1892.
J. A. LEONARD.....	American.....	10th June 1892 to 10th May 1893.
Dr. O. STUEBEL.....	German.....	10th May 1893 to 10th August 1893.
M. GONBEL.....	Belgian.....	10th August 1893 to 10th October 1893.
J. M. T. VALDEL.....	Portuguese.....	10th October 1893 to 21st May 1895.
Dr. O. STUEBEL.....	German.....	23rd May 1895 to 31st August 1898.
J. M. T. VALDEL.....	Portuguese.....	31st August 1898 to 14th August 1901.
J. GOODNOW.....	American.....	14th August 1901 to

Except for the extraordinary rush for accommodation during the bad times of 1900, when, owing to the fear or inability of many Chinese to take up their contracts, large stocks of goods accumulated here in Shanghai, the figures for the past 10 years bear out Mr. BREDON's statement, in the last Decennial Report, that there is no special demand on the part of shipping firms for additional bonding facilities. Yet I am told by some of those firms who make most use of the bonding privileges, that the reason why they do not place more of their goods in the warehouses, on arrival, is to be found in the fact that the high charges demanded by the warehouse companies for transferring cargo from the bonded to other godowns makes it necessary to keep the cargo in bond for from three to four months, in order to save an equivalent amount of interest on the Duty; and when lightering is necessary, as is more often than not the case when there is but one bonded warehouse, as at present, the expenses of twice moving the cargo will equal from five to seven months interest. But, on the other hand, the character of the business transactions here, with such a large per-centage of contract orders placed in advance, involves a comparatively rapid turning over of the cargo, and renders bonding undesirable in the great majority of cases.

III.—The significant change to be recorded in connexion with the importation of Foreign goods into Shanghai is the wonderful increase in the amount of almost all Foreign Imports

save Opium, their value rising from 77 million Haikwan taels in 1891 to 160 millions in 1901. Although the annual Trade Reports deal with the changes in separate commodities from year to year, the movements and tendencies of trade, in some articles, appear much more strikingly when a longer period is taken as the basis for comparison. A few items in the Returns show remarkable changes. Japanese Cotton Yarn goes from *Hk.Tta* 1,760 to *Hk.Tta* 6,303,346, illustrating, in one line, the growing share which the Mikado's country is claiming in China's commerce. Indian Yarn has also made great strides, from about 9 to 21 million Haikwan taels. Then, with the establishment of Cotton mills here, a new item of *Hk.Tta* 2,738,075 worth of Raw Cotton appears in the Returns. There are also large increases in those classes of goods which were formerly included in the Duty-free list, on the assumption that they were only for Foreigners use, but which long since have been freely bought by the Chinese and have now come to be used by them in larger quantities than by the Foreign population: in this category come Provisions, Wines, Cigars and Cigarettes, Flour, Soap, and several other articles which indicate the higher standard of living adopted by the Chinese. And, in this connexion, it is gratifying to be able to record a decided tendency, on the part of the Chinese taste, to gravitate away from the cheap and shoddy variety toward the more expensive and substantial articles of Foreign importation. Steady gains have been made in almost all the different kinds of Piece Goods, and some new varieties have been successfully introduced. But the one article among Foreign Imports which has clearly outdistanced all others, in the 10 years, is Kerosene Oil; and to show its increased sales here, the accompanying table has been prepared. The total amount imported will be seen to have increased from 21 to 91 million gallons; and an entirely new brand has made its appearance on the market—this is the Sumatra Oil, which was first imported in tins in 1896, and during the following year began coming in bulk, until now it shows over 21 million gallons in this past year's total of 91 millions. The first appearance of tank steamers—whose coming it was predicted in the last Decennial Report would, by a reduction in the freight of Oil, benefit consumers to the extent of 30 per cent. of its price—was in 1894, and, as shown by the comparative prices of the Russian tin and bulk Oil for that and the following years, they have fulfilled the prophecy. Following upon the Shell Transportation and Trading Company's use of these steamers, came the establishment in 1897 of the second tank Oil concern—the Royal Dutch Petroleum Company; but, as yet, the American Oils are brought here in tins only. Since 1892 the prices of all the Oils have been tending steadily upward, until now they have reached a point about 50 per cent. above those ruling 10 years ago. This is principally due to the high prices in the United States and the increased freight rates at different periods; for as the demand for the other Oils seldom exceeds or presses the supply, they depend almost entirely upon the American Oils for fixing their prices. Then, within the past three or four years, the freight rates from the United States have advanced, I am told, from 10 to 15 gold cents per case, and in 1900, when tin was also very high, they combined with other forces to drive the price to nearly twice what it was in 1892. The leading dealers here say that the large imports during the past year were necessary to replenish the retail stocks, that had been allowed to run low during the uncertain times of 1900. The table shows the amount of Kerosene imported into Shanghai, as well as the average prices in Haikwan taels of the different brands, during each year of the decade.

KEROSENE OIL IMPORTED, 1892-1901.

	1892.		1893.		1894.		1895.		1896.	
	Quantity imported.	Price per Case.	Quantity imported.	Price per Case.	Quantity imported.	Price per Case.	Quantity imported.	Price per Case.	Quantity imported.	Price per Case.
	Gallons.	Hk. 7½	Gallons.	Hk. 7½	Gallons.	Hk. 7½	Gallons.	Hk. 7½	Gallons.	Hk. 7½
American	17,191,400	0.94	23,619,005	0.98	36,241,934	1.06	16,015,080	1.28	25,750,090	1.37
Russian, in cases	3,836,448	0.90	5,132,045	0.94	4,059,700	1.03	7,867,680	1.21	7,826,900	1.25
„ in bulk	3,012,620	0.73	5,847,000	0.89	7,654,360	0.96
Sumatra, in cases	1,582,733	1.28
TOTAL	21,027,848	28,751,050	43,314,254	29,729,760	42,821,383*

	1897.		1898.		1899.		1900.		1901.	
	Quantity imported.	Price per Case.	Quantity imported.	Price per Case.	Quantity imported.	Price per Case.	Quantity imported.	Price per Case.	Quantity imported.	Price per Case.
	Gallons.	Hk. 7½	Gallons.	Hk. 7½	Gallons.	Hk. 7½	Gallons.	Hk. 7½	Gallons.	Hk. 7½
American	36,909,060	1.40	42,339,020	1.34	26,438,138	1.55	19,413,440	1.73	43,770,340	1.41
Russian, in cases	17,467,940	1.30	8,016,330	1.19	16,849,450	1.39	14,896,780	1.68	21,411,920	1.30
„ in bulk	7,411,900	0.97	5,491,190	0.89	6,732,338	1.19	9,238,528	1.26	3,972,669	0.92
Sumatra, in cases	3,218,395	1.24	391,960	1.78	376,360	1.26
„ in bulk	2,352,028	0.98	13,223,075	0.91	5,275,972	1.17	5,802,256	1.19	21,643,428	0.92
TOTAL	67,359,323	69,069,615	55,295,898	49,742,964	91,176,717†

* Includes 7,300 gallons of Japanese Oil.

† Includes 9,000 gallons of Japanese Oil.

Unquestionably the most important, and most deplorable, feature of the Export trade of Shanghai and China in general, during the past 10 years, has been the falling off in Tea transactions—the decline in the consumption of China's most important staple on the world's market. My predecessor who wrote the last Decennial Report (Mr. BREDON) remarked, "it is in the English market only that China Tea has suffered, and, so far, not in the markets of other countries;" the fact being that, at that time, the quantity of leaf exported to Russia—the chief customer for the China product—still maintained its high level, and other markets showed no more depreciation than might reasonably be attributed to temporary and local influences. But looking back from this distance of time, the figures of the total export of Tea for the years 1890 and 1891 seem to bear a prophetic significance.

A glance at table III of the report of the "Tea" section sub-committee of the "Special Committee on Taxation," which was prepared under the direction of, and submitted to, the

Shanghai Chamber of Commerce in 1897, and is here completed to the end of 1901, will show that from 1871 to and through 1889 China exported from 200 to 250 million lb. of Leaf Tea annually, with an average of 239 millions for the 10 years just previous to 1890; following this column down through 1901, the amount for this year—115 million lb.—and the 10-year average of 156 millions record in an indubitable manner the epitomised history of the trade during the past 12 years. If Brick and Tablet Tea and Dust be included, the result of the comparison is still much the same, as can be seen by reference to the table on page 19 of Part I of the "Returns of Trade and Trade Reports" for 1901. But recourse must be had to further comparisons before the full significance and purport of this decline can be properly appreciated.

Since the last Decennial Report was written, in addition to the decline which has continued precipitately in the English market, the Australian market has practically disappeared, as will be readily seen from the appended table III, and the United States demand has decreased somewhat. Moreover, Russia, which has formerly been the stronghold of China Black Teas, and upon which China relied, 10 years ago, to take her surplus of this staple which failed to find a place in Great Britain, is now turning to Ceylon and India for large supplies; and within the last few years several large Russian houses have established branches in Colombo for the purchase of these Ceylon Teas. In the short space of four years, while the exports of Congou from China to Russia have fallen from 50 to 31½ million lb., the Ceylon Black Teas bought by Russia have risen from 1,500,000 to 9,600,000 lb. Add to these significant facts a comparison of China and non-China Teas in the principal tea-drinking countries of the world, and the way China has been losing ground in the world's Tea markets will readily be seen. Table II, below, shows that, although Europe and America now consume more Tea than they did 10 years ago, the amount of China Teas has been steadily decreasing, while the non-China Teas have gone into these markets in ever-increasing quantities. These few patent facts demonstrate beyond a doubt that, while the world's demand for Teas has increased, China has failed to maintain her position among the countries which meet that demand.

"I.—EXPORT OF LEAF TEA TO UNITED KINGDOM.

"YEAR.	China.	India.	Ceylon.	TOTAL.
	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.
" 1890.....	57,861,878	100,984,000	50,191,000	209,036,878
1891.....	54,837,931	111,017,000	63,768,000	229,622,931
1892.....	48,194,295	107,509,000	65,139,000	220,842,295
1893.....	48,962,435	114,508,000	72,124,000	235,594,435
1894.....	41,000,607	115,261,000	76,287,000	232,548,607
1895.....	33,401,867	117,900,000	81,870,000	233,171,867
1896.....	28,450,000	125,405,184	89,992,970	243,848,154
1897.....	24,231,867	134,885,583	93,447,034	252,564,484
1898.....	20,992,400	138,874,490	94,319,832	254,186,722
1899.....	24,157,333	140,646,000	96,188,000	260,991,333
1900.....	18,018,533	152,334,700	111,147,800	281,501,033
1901	18,029,067	160,716,300	103,234,500	281,979,867

"II.—EXPORT OF CHINA AND NON-CHINA TEA TO EUROPE AND AMERICA.

"YEAR.	India and Ceylon Tea to United Kingdom.	Teas to America.		TOTAL : Non-China Tea to Europe and America.	TOTAL : China Tea to Europe and America.	GRAND TOTAL.
		Japan.	Formosa.			
	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.
"1890.....	151,175,000	46,000,000	...	197,175,000	181,846,545	379,021,545
1891.....	174,785,000	47,800,000	...	222,585,000	188,593,374	411,178,374
1892.....	172,648,000	46,700,000	...	219,348,000	172,829,840	392,177,840
1893.....	186,632,000	45,800,000	...	232,432,000	190,713,317	423,145,317
1894.....	191,548,000	46,200,000	...	237,748,000	193,847,988	431,595,988
1895.....	199,770,000	47,500,000	9,068,396	247,370,000	191,878,262	439,248,262
1896.....	215,405,000	54,426,667	17,637,587	269,831,667	168,266,120	438,097,787
1897.....	228,332,617	43,137,612	14,627,804	271,470,229	143,658,070	415,128,299
1898.....	233,194,322	40,477,050	15,466,265	273,671,372	153,439,065	427,110,437
1899.....	236,833,000	41,470,542	16,504,044	278,303,542	170,778,710	449,082,252
1900.....	263,482,500	37,466,633	16,912,272	300,949,133	158,878,005	459,827,138
1901.....	263,956,800	36,382,000	15,605,000	300,332,800	131,037,267	431,370,067

"NOTE.—This table is completed to conform to the earlier part, viz., Formosa Tea is reckoned as a China Tea.

"III.—TOTAL EXPORT OF LEAF TEA FROM CHINA.

"YEAR.	To United Kingdom.*	To United States.	To Russia.	To Australia.	To Sundry Places.†	TOTAL.
	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.	Lb.
"1880.....	148,379,733	35,956,667	16,613,867	19,182,667	28,420,266	248,553,200
1881.....	139,110,000	45,058,933	18,108,267	20,702,800	29,016,533	251,998,533
1882.....	135,366,267	34,837,867	22,451,733	18,006,800	29,087,200	239,749,867
1883.....	134,599,867	33,877,200	24,776,800	13,704,800	28,852,000	235,810,667
1884.....	128,162,133	36,434,000	27,116,400	16,898,000	27,552,400	236,162,933
1885.....	134,855,600	38,232,533	20,409,600	19,285,467	33,702,000	246,485,200
1886.....	126,604,933	40,595,200	31,878,134	17,120,800	31,241,333	247,440,400
1887.....	105,832,933	36,548,267	36,656,533	19,672,400	44,190,534	242,900,667
1888.....	91,762,133	40,276,000	35,534,000	21,846,933	44,568,934	233,988,000
1889.....	80,498,433	39,486,400	29,480,532	18,616,400	40,905,302	208,987,067
1890.....	57,861,878	35,752,158	37,723,576	14,554,048	35,954,885	181,846,545
1891.....	54,837,931	36,759,560	40,307,571	13,541,029	43,147,283	188,593,374
1892.....	48,194,295	41,056,459	27,914,831	15,962,358	39,701,897	172,829,840
1893.....	48,962,435	45,638,338	39,101,860	11,955,805	45,054,879	190,713,317
1894.....	41,000,607	53,759,595	46,511,320	10,709,696	41,866,770	193,847,988
1895.....	33,401,867	41,482,666	56,340,532	11,244,266	40,340,535	182,809,866
1896.....	28,450,000	30,146,000	45,182,666	6,258,800	40,591,067	150,628,533
1897.....	24,231,867	27,718,400	41,573,867	4,443,600	31,062,532	129,030,266
1898.....	20,992,400	20,924,666	58,083,332	5,690,200	32,273,202	137,972,800
1899.....	24,157,333	29,138,000	60,130,533	6,080,933	34,767,867	154,274,666
1900.....	18,018,533	34,020,800	46,098,133	6,077,866	37,750,401	141,965,733
1901.....	18,029,067	24,477,067	40,258,000	1,681,466	30,986,667	115,432,267

"* The imports into the United Kingdom will exceed these figures, owing to Tea that is cleared for Hongkong or other ports ultimately reaching Great Britain; for example, in 1895 the imports were 49,978,000 lb.; in 1896, 36,866,000 lb. The statistics for other years are not easily obtainable.

"† Mainly via Hongkong."

The reasons assigned for this state of affairs by leading Tea merchants, and by the committee of the Chamber of Commerce, are—

- 1°. That the taxation imposed upon the China Teas makes it impossible to compete with those raised in India, Ceylon, and Japan, where no Duty of any kind is levied; and
- 2°. That increasing carelessness in the preparation of the Tea on the part of the Chinese teamen has militated against it, when it has had to compete with the Teas of India, Ceylon, and Japan, prepared with greater care by improved processes.

Bearing upon the first reason assigned, I quote the following paragraph from the report submitted this year by the above-named committee:—

"From careful investigation made in all ports, we estimate that the average price of China Tea, after deducting the Duties and other charges the producer is forced to pay to various funds, is now about $\text{Hk.}\text{Ta}$ 15 to $\text{Hk.}\text{Ta}$ 16 per picul. The Duty collected by the Central Government is $\text{Hk.}\text{Ta}$ 2.50 per picul; the exact amount of other imposts, collected in the various districts through which the Tea passes, we are unable to accurately obtain. In some districts the total taxation reaches $\text{Hk.}\text{Ta}$ 4.78. The Treaties provided for a one-charge payment of a Duty and a half of $\frac{7}{8}$ per cent. *ad valorem*, on a then estimated average value of $\text{Hk.}\text{Ta}$ 50 per picul, or, say, $\text{Hk.}\text{Ta}$ 3.75. This fixed charge, which was originally stipulated for, has long since become an excessive burden to the producer, and should years ago have been reduced, to conform with the changes which have taken place in the trade—an alteration repeatedly urged by all those interested."

Furthermore, many of the Teas brought to the Hankow and Shanghai markets pay, as inland taxes, amounts which nearly equal the Export Duty levied by the Customs, as the two following tables from the 1897 report of the Chamber of Commerce show:—

"TABLE SHOWING PER-CENTAGES OF LIKIN, AND OF LIKIN AND EXPORT DUTY OF $\text{Hk.}\text{Ta}$ 2.50 PER PICUL, ON GREEN TEA FROM THE ANHWEI PROVINCE.

"GRADE.	Average Value at Shanghai Duty paid.	Average Value without Likin and Export Duty.	Likin, in Shanghai Taels.	Export Duty, in Shanghai Taels.	Amount of Likin and Export Duty.	Per-centages of Taxation on Cost.		
						Likin.	Export Duty.	Likin and Export Duty.
	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.
"Common.....	14.50	9.20	2.52	2.78	5.30	27½	30	57½
Medium.....	20	14.70	2.52	2.78	5.30	17	19	36
Fine.....	25.50	20.20	2.52	2.78	5.30	12½	13½	26½
Finest.....	30.50	25.20	2.52	2.78	5.30	10	11	21
Choice.....	33	27.70	2.52	2.78	5.30	9	19	19
AVERAGE.....	23.75	18.45	2.52	2.78	5.30	13½	15	28½

"TABLE SHOWING PER-CENTAGES OF LIKIN, AND OF LIKIN AND EXPORT DUTY OF
Hk. Ta 2.50 PER PICUL, ON HANKOW AND KIUKIANG TEAS.

"GRADES.	Average Value at Hankow.	Average Value without Likin.	Likin, in Hankow Tael.	Export Duty, in Hankow Tael.	Amount of Likin and Export Duty.	Per-centages of Taxation on Cost.		
						Likin.	Export Duty.	Likin and Export Duty.
	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Ta	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.
"Common.....	10	7.68	2.32	2.72	5.04	30.20	35.42	65.62
Medium.....	23	20.68	2.32	2.72	5.04	11.22	13.15	24.37
Fine.....	35	32.68	2.32	2.72	5.04	7.10	8.32	15.42
Finest.....	49	46.68	2.07	2.72	4.79	4.43	5.82	10.24
Choice.....	63.50	61.18	2.07	2.72	4.79	3.38	4.45	7.83
AVERAGE.....	22.27	20.35	2.28	2.272	5.00	11.20	13.30	24.50
"Tea Dust.....	5.18	4.18	1	2.72	3.72	24	65	89
Brick Tea.....	(1)	(1)	1	0.65	1.65	(1)	(1)	(1)

"NOTE.—Common, medium, and fine are estimated to amount to 85 per cent., and liable to Likin at Hk. Ta 2.32 per picul; the balance, of 15 per cent., is regarded as Ningchow, and Likin is taken at Hk. Ta 2.07 per picul."

In contrast with these conditions must be considered the fostering care accorded the industry in Japan and India, and especially in Ceylon, where encouragement is being given to the culture of Green Tea by means of a bounty of 7 rupee cents per lb. With such competitors, and with the natural, and perhaps commendable, energy and persistence of the manufacturers of India and Ceylon Tea in forcing their product into consumption, the Tea merchants here maintain they are unable to hold their own, with the heavily taxed China product. That the Duty on China Tea was too high was obvious 10 years ago, when the last Decennial Report was written; but that China would gain by reducing it was, at that time, thought questionable. Since then the Tea revenue has fallen off one-fourth, and, unless the rate of decrease in the trade be checked, it will not take more than 10 years to bring it to just one-half what it was in 1891, and the prospects then, unless the present conditions be reversed, will be no better than 10 years ago for a recovery in the trade and in the revenue. This may be put more simply, and perhaps more expressively, by merely stating that this year's total exports are just one-half of those for 1888. Evidently the point has been reached where the situation cannot be left to mend itself, and where remedial measures must be applied, even at some risk of present loss to Revenue.

Of course, the quality and flavour of Teas exert a strong influence upon their consumption; and China has in the past clearly demonstrated that she has a Tea peculiar to herself, which the stronger Teas of India and Ceylon can never drive entirely from the world's markets, so long as its quality is maintained. But the Chinese, as has been pointed out, are increasingly careless in the picking, firing, and packing of Tea, the results of which are seen in their product coming to the markets of a quality much inferior to what the leaf is naturally susceptible of

making, and thus fetching a much reduced price. Adulteration Acts, especially the general one passed in the United States in April 1897, have done much to improve the standard of some grades—noticeably the Pingsueys, a large quantity of which was refused admission into that country when the law first went into operation. In this, as in their other Exports, the Chinese will never attain the best results until they abandon their detrimental—in some cases suicidal—"can pass" policy, and awake, in this particular instance, to the necessity of revivifying the lands on which the Teas are raised and of carefully preparing the leaf for market, rather than trust to the "joss" of particular years to dispose of their crops for them.

As to the results to be obtained from introducing Foreign machinery into the industry, little hope can be held out. This year's Chamber of Commerce committee give it as their opinion "that no success can be looked for in this direction until Foreigners are permitted to grow their own leaf, or, at least, until those making any further attempts in manufacture under improved methods are in a position to procure their leaf at approximately producing prices, and that from over an area small enough to enable such leaf to undergo the initial stages of preparation within a short time of plucking, which is absolutely essential to success." Anyone with even a superficial knowledge of China and her ways will be loth to believe that these conditions will be readily or speedily secured.

In connexion with the Tea trade of the last decade, several changes should be noted as a matter of historical record. First, as a result of the cession of Formosa to Japan in 1895, the Teas from that island no longer appeared as China Teas, but, in their new status as untaxed exports—save for a nominal port charge,—entered into keen and damaging competition with the China brands. Then there has occurred a radical change in the route taken by the Green Teas for consumption in Central Asia, which formerly went by sea to Bombay and thence overland, as stated by the Statistical Secretary, Mr. F. E. TAYLOR, on page 4 of Part I of the "Returns of Trade and Trade Reports" for 1897, but which have since been diverted to Batoum by sea and from there carried inland by the Central Asian Railway; in 1894, when India declared a 5 per cent. duty on China Teas, this change of route began. In May 1898 the United States levied an import duty of 10 gold cents per lb. on Tea; and Great Britain this past year has increased her duty from 4d. to 6d. per lb. Lastly, the abnormal drop in the trade during the past year is said to be due to diminished Russian demand and to a surplus in the United States from the speculative purchases of 1900.

(c.) Table No. VII, b, at page 340 of the "Returns of Trade and Trade Reports" for 1901 shows the Duties collected for the past 10 years at this port. The total collections have gradually increased, so that the average for the past three years exceeds that of the first three by about 30 per cent., and this in spite of the interruption of trade in 1900. The collection for 1901 exceeds that for 1891 by nearly 20 per cent. Considered as a whole, the later years of the decade show a more marked advance over the earlier five than do those over the period 1887-91. The gain appears under all the headings save Opium. The collections from Tonnage and Transit have more than doubled themselves in the 10 years; while those from Imports and Exports have increased in almost exactly the same ratio—one-third. The tendency, noted by Mr. BREDON in the last Decennial Report, toward a diminution in the importation of Indian

Opium has continued, until now the Revenue received from the Duty and Likin charges on this article has depreciated about 30 per cent. since 1891.

The total collection of each year serves as a fair barometer of trade conditions at that period. Thus, 1893 stands at the lowest point on the scale, with 1901 at the top and 1899 second; in 1898, when many adverse influences were working upon the trade, the Revenue fell to a point 500,000 and 1,000,000 Haikwan taels below that of the two previous years.

(d.) The decline in the importation of Foreign Opium noted in the last Decennial Report has continued steadily through this decade, until now there is only about three-fourths as much brought in as there was 10 years ago. Nor has this falling off been decidedly marked in any one particular kind, as was the case before, when Malwa lost so heavily in proportion to the other kinds, but it has been borne generally, by Malwa, Patna, and Benares. Persian Opium, which has never, however, furnished any noticeable portion of the whole amount during the past 10 years, has now quite disappeared. It should be noted that, owing to increased importations of Native Opium, there has been no marked change in the total quantity imported from all sources: for the past three years it stands almost exactly where it did from 1882 to 1884.

FOREIGN AND NATIVE OPIUM IMPORTED, 1892-1901.

YEAR.	Malwa.	Patna.	Benares.	Persian.	Turkey.	Boiled.	Szechwan.	Other Native.	TOTAL.
	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.
1892.....	21,058.70	8,402.25	6,116.40	279	1	...	2,093.93	27.13	37,978.41
1893.....	21,393.44	8,147.12	4,944	26	...	3.17	2,433	34.56	36,981.29
1894.....	23,136.56	8,166.49	4,105.20	3	...	0.28	4,480.81	575.91	40,468.25
1895.....	21,398.17	6,097.30	3,800	10	...	3	9,535.25	878.11	41,721.83
1896.....	18,827.51	7,271.08	3,801.60	35	...	1.37	7,616.18	1,099.10	38,591.84
1897.....	16,097.02	8,212.92	4,293.60	22	...	1.58	8,858.47	1,089.17	38,574.76
1898.....	15,320.08	7,282.91	5,299.20	30	...	0.88	6,343.27	1,596.35	35,872.69
1899.....	23,064	7,542	5,470	26	...	1.06	9,905.74	2,540.51	48,549.31
1900.....	18,208	6,150	4,953.60	55	1	0.62	9,058.77	4,584.69	43,011.68
1901.....	17,250.50	6,660	5,126.60	4	1	0.45	12,159.86	3,977.91	45,180.32

As has been repeatedly stated by different Commissioners in their annual Trade Reports, the two causes that have been at work to drive out Foreign Opium are the increase in the supply of the Native drug and the rise in the price of the Indian product—due, chiefly, to the fall in the value of silver. In 1892 and 1893 Szechwan Opium began to appear in small amounts, and in the following year doubled its previous showing of somewhat over 2,000 piculs, which was said to be, in a measure, due to the appreciation of the more certain and uniform treatment received from the Foreign Customs, so that much which had formerly entered Shanghai through the Native Customs appeared in our Returns. The Yunnan and Kweichow products were insignificant during the early years of the decade; and not until 1896 was there enough Kiangsu Opium imported to warrant entering it under a separate heading. But in 1901 the amount of the Native drug which came in through the Customs was 16,138 piculs, three-quarters of which was Szechwan and a large part of the remainder Yunnan.

The second reason assigned, the rise in price of Foreign Opium, is clearly set forth in the following table, giving the highest and lowest quotations for the period. It should be noticed, too, what a change appears in the course of the prices for this decade as compared with their course during the last. Then the value of the landed imports kept tending downward, in spite of the fall of silver, whereas, as has just been stated, the value has almost constantly risen since 1891. The prices here given are in Shanghai taels, and do not include Duty or Likin.

PRICE OF FOREIGN OPIUM, 1892-1901.

YEAR.	MALWA (per Picul).		PATNA (per Chest of 120 Catties).		BENARES (per Chest of 120 Catties).	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
	Ta.	Ta.	Ta.	Ta.	Ta.	Ta.
1892.....	432	355	448	361	464	341
1893.....	570	372	462	385	472	389
1894.....	540	430	628	444	623	445
1895.....	575	475	644	495	638	479
1896.....	640	505	597	478	599	480
1897.....	730	535	584	478	590	487
1898.....	700	520	590	520	592	522
1899.....	685	500	690	536	678	534
1900.....	735	562	756	620	765	620
1901.....	740	570	778	634	714	644

The depreciation in the value of the Shanghai tael, as measured in rupees, during the period, has in itself been almost sufficient to account for this rise in price. The rates of exchange ruling during these years show what a great difference now exists in the relationship between the tael and the rupee from that which obtained in 1891. The number of rupees exchanging for Shanghai Tls 100 has been as follows:—

	HIGHEST. Rupees.	LOWEST. Rupees.		HIGHEST. Rupees.	LOWEST. Rupees.
1892	313½	304	1897	229	170
1893	309	252	1898	204½	183
1894	263	233	1899	205	193½
1895	273	252½	1900	219	198½
1896	262½	224	1901	212½	182½

All the Opium known as Kiangsu Opium which comes to Shanghai is produced in Hsi-chou (徐州), a prefecture, in the north-west of the province, which is almost entirely devoted to the culture of the poppy and is said to yield an annual harvest of from 2,000 to 10,000 piculs. Comparatively small quantities produced in other parts of the province are only sufficient for local consumption. It is estimated that seven-tenths of the local product is consumed within the province, while the remaining three-tenths is exported from Chinkiang.

or Shanghai. A tax of *K'u-p'ing Tia* 30—about *Hk.Tia* 29—is levied upon the locally-consumed drug. The poppy is said to have been first cultivated in this province in 1889 or 1890, and the total production of Hsu-chou Opium since then is estimated to be about 57,500 piculs.

From year to year attention has been called to the increasing importation of Morphia, and the necessity of imposing a heavy prohibitive Duty has been strongly urged. It may be well to include here the figures of these 10 years for both the quantity and value of this substitute for Opium, which is gaining such a strong hold upon the Chinese, and allow these figures to make their own comment.

Morphia imported, 1892-1901.

QUANTITY.		VALUE.		QUANTITY.		VALUE.	
Ounces.		Hk.Tia.		Ounces.		Hk.Tia.	
1892 . . .	15,761	12,325		1897 . . .	68,170	112,796	
1893 . . .	27,993	32,462		1898 . . .	75,748	109,570	
1894 . . .	43,414	63,289		1899 . . .	133,764	197,602	
1895 . . .	64,043	76,886		1900 . . .	93,667	145,864	
1896 . . .	67,320	89,536		1901 . . .	114,080	178,743	

(c.) The annexed table shows the highest, lowest, and average values of the Shanghai tael, in sterling, for the past 10 years:—

YEAR.	HIGHEST.		LOWEST.		AVERAGE.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
1892.....	4	2½ (3rd January)	3	8½ (8th December)	3	11½
1893.....	3	10½ (4th May)	3	1½ (30th December)	3	6½
1894.....	3	1½ (19th January)	2	7½ (3rd March)	2	10½
1895.....	3	0½ (12th October)	2	8½ (17th January)	2	11
1896.....	3	1 (12th March)	2	10½ (14th October)	2	11½
1897.....	2	11½ (4th January)	2	3½ (2nd September)	2	7½
1898.....	2	8½ (19th December)	2	5½ (4th March)	2	7
1899.....	2	9½ (18th December)	2	7 (5th October)	2	8½
1900.....	2	11½ (24th October)	2	8 (9th February)	2	9½
1901.....	2	10½ (3rd January)	2	5 (3rd December)	2	8½

Thus, the highest value the Haikwan tael (*Shanghai Tia* 111.40=*Hk.Tia* 100) reached was in January 1892, when it exchanged for 4s. 8½d., and the lowest quotation, in September 1897, showed a value of 2s. 6½d.

From these figures it can be seen what a phenomenal depreciation in the value of silver the past 10 years have witnessed, and when compared with the figures of the previous decade, the decline appears all the more striking. During the period covered by the previous Decennial Report silver fell about 18 per cent., while during the period of equal length under review it has fallen over 33 per cent., making a drop in one year—1893—of 14 per cent., or nearly as much

as during the whole decade before—this, of course, was largely due to the demonetisation of silver in India, when, in June of that year, the right of free coinage at the Indian mints was withdrawn. It is axiomatic that the influence of these fluctuations of silver upon the trade of a country which has a silver basis, and measures its wealth in that metal, is very demoralising. When the Secretary of State for India announced, for January 1894, that the minimum price of 1s. 4d. to the rupee fixed for Council drafts was abandoned, a rapid fall in silver ensued which completely disorganised Chinese trade. Following this came the action of Japan, in the summer of 1897, in adopting a gold standard for her currency, which helped to drive silver down to the lowest point it had touched; the shipments of *yen* to that country, together with large exports of silver to the river and northern ports, caused intense tightness—verging on a panic—in the local money market, and in November the Native authorities temporarily stopped the exportation of silver. During this and the following year (1898) the average exchange stood lower than at any previous or subsequent period during the decade. Again, this past autumn exchange dropped so rapidly that, for a time, business was almost entirely suspended.

Although financial stringency and erratic movements in exchange have caused much uneasiness and uncertainty in the Foreign money market of Shanghai, the period reviewed counts only one upheaval which can be dignified with the term “financial crisis.” Trouble in the home market, incident to the Baring crisis of 1890, paved the way for the disturbances which wrought havoc in Hongkong and Shanghai financial circles in the spring of 1892. Three or four years earlier, when numerous joint-stock companies formed in Hongkong carried away large amounts of money for investment in North Borneo, Tonkin, and the Straits, and brought back only meagre returns, the banks had made large loans on the stock, and carried on their books a considerable amount of paper whose value was unknown. They had also taken large sums on deposit in Great Britain which they loaned out here in silver, so that when the drop came they found themselves in very trying positions. Naturally there followed general stringency and a consequent depression of bank shares. Only one Shanghai bank, however, was forced to close its doors and go into liquidation, although almost all were more or less hard pressed for a time; this was the New Oriental Bank. It had become involved in unprofitable sugar advances in the Mauritius, and had taken out gold deposits in Scotland falling due in October, so that when the time to meet these came it had to liquidate at heavy loss to the shareholders.

Besides this failure in banking circles, the decade must be credited with one other, which has just occurred. On the last day of this year the Bank of China and Japan, which had been established in 1894, with branches at Singapore and Hongkong, closed its business to go into liquidation. In addition, the number of banking houses here has been further decreased by the withdrawal of the branches of the National Bank of China and the Agra Bank; but, on the other hand, four new banks have been opened during the 10 years to counterbalance the number of failures and withdrawals. First came the Yokohama Specie Bank, which opened its branch here in May 1893. Then the Russo-Chinese Bank, which was organised under Imperial Decree of 10th December 1895, with head offices at St. Petersburg, formally began business on the 12th February 1896, both here and at Hankow; within six or eight months it

installed branches at Tientsin, Peking, Port Arthur, and Newchwang, and it now counts over 40 branches and agencies in China, Russia, Siberia, Japan, and Europe. But of all four, the third one to open its books here was by far the most interesting innovation in Foreign banking circles. Through the instrumentality of His Excellency SHANG, Director General of Railways and Telegraphs, the Imperial Bank of China was established by an Imperial Edict of 12th November 1896, and began business on 18th May of the following year; its capital of Shanghai Tia 5,000,000 was subscribed by Chinese alone; branches were opened in Hong-kong, Singapore, and Penang. Then, just recently, comes the announcement of the formation in New York of the International Banking Corporation, and of the action on the part of the United States Government in awarding to this bank the contract for receiving and remitting that Power's share of the indemnity payments; the Shanghai branch will begin business on 1st January 1902.

The Native money market is even more erratic, and responds more quickly to disturbing influences, than the Foreign one. Native interest has ranged from 4 and 5 candareens to 2 mace 5 candareens and 3 mace per tael per month. At certain times during 1892 and 1893 money could be procured by reliable hongers or individuals at as low as 2 and 3 candareens, while during the China-Japan war and the Boxer troubles the rates soared to a prohibitive point. In the summer of 1900 as high as 30 per cent. a month was asked by the banks. This, however, did not denote a scarcity of money; for, as always happens when there is a contraction of credit, there was a superabundance of circulating medium—so much, in fact, in the local money market, that the banks had their vaults full to overflowing, and instead of paying interest on new deposits, as in ordinary times, they charged for storage room. The high rate simply represented the price of confidence during that disturbed season.

The appreciation in the value of copper cash, which was noted in the previous Decennial Report, has continued through the last decade even more rapidly than during the "eighties"; for while the exchange value of a Shanghai tael of silver dropped during those years from 1,535 to about 1,370—a fall of 165 cash,—within the past 10 years it has fallen off to about 1,200 cash, representing a decrease of 14, against the earlier one of 11, per cent. The remarkable feature in this is, of course, the continuation of the enhancement of the value of cash, which Chinese bankers and leading business men attribute entirely to the scarcity of copper—just another way of saying the value of the cash has risen with the price of this metal during the past two decades. The rise in the "eighties" was noticeable, but cannot be compared with the gain made since 1891. In that year tribute copper was quoted at Hk.Tia 14, Foreign ingots at Hk.Tia 17, and Japanese at Hk.Tia 11.50; the rise was steady and rapid until the China-Japan war, when it became abrupt; and now Japanese copper brings Hk.Tia 26, and Foreign ingots, Hk.Tia 30 to Hk.Tia 32.

This ruling high price has made it profitable to melt down the cash for industrial uses, and has thus stimulated the process of weeding out the heavier and more perfect coins, until now a string of 1,000 of the ordinary ones in circulation weighs only about 5 catties, whereas the same number 10 years ago weighed about 6 catties, and 25 years ago, 7 or more catties. Of course, the simultaneous depreciation in the value of silver must also be given some

consideration in noting the change in rate between the tael and cash; yet there seems to be more danger of allowing this cause too great weight than of minimising it, for during the periods when silver has fallen most rapidly its power of purchasing cash has not dropped proportionately.

Quite recently the Mint at Soochow has begun turning out a 10-cash piece, which has attained quite a wide circulation in that region, and has already found its way into the Shanghai market. Owing to the large gap in the scale between the cash and the silver coins, a real need for it was felt; and merchants here believe it will come into very general use, because of the labour it saves in counting and handling such large numbers of cash on small transactions. Moreover, its circulation will not be subject to the depredation that reduces the supply of cash, for it contains only 6½ to 7 cash worth of copper, and consequently will not be more valuable as metal than as a coin until the price of copper soars far above its already high mark. The cash shops are just now reaping good profits with the new coin, since they give in exchange for a 10-cent piece—which will buy 84 cash—only eight of these 10-cash pieces.

In answer to the question whether a Shanghai tael of silver will buy as much Native produce to-day as it would 10 years ago, all the Chinese consulted have said most emphatically that it will not, and have only differed as to the degree in which prices have risen. Men best able to make accurate comparisons estimate the rise at from 30 to 40 per cent., while some put it as low as 20, and others as high as 50, per cent. The prices which ruled at the two periods in some of the most common articles of use in Chinese living will furnish some guide. Rice has risen in the 10 years from about Tia 3.50 per picul to Tia 6 or more; firewood, from 300 to 450 cash per picul; bean oil, from 90 to 160 cash per catty; and house rents have increased in about the ratio of three to five. That some seemingly reliable authorities put the proportionate rise so high may possibly be explained by the fact that the better class of Chinese are to-day living in a more expensive manner than they were 10 years ago; that they are gradually, with their development along lines of Western civilisation, realising the inevitable accompaniment of that development—increased cost of living,—and are unconsciously crediting this increase in their monthly and yearly expenses too much to the rise in price of their own Native products.

(f) The following tables, showing the balance of trade at this port, bring out the fact that, in gross amounts, the Imports absorbed here have increased as much as the Exports originating here; but when these tables are compared with the similar ones on page 329 of the last volume of Decennial Reports, it will be seen that in the 20 years since 1881 the Exports have developed much more than the Imports. This means, of course, that Shanghai's ability to produce more than she needs is growing more rapidly than her demand for commodities from other Chinese ports and from Foreign countries, or, in other words, that she is, economically speaking, constantly building up the credit side of her wealth accounts with the rest of the world. Yet because of the numerous elements which enter into this problem, such as the bringing in and investing of Foreign capital, it is difficult and dangerous to draw from these figures any definite conclusion as to the degree in which the port is an economic wealth-producing centre.

IMPORTS.

	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Net Foreign Imports, market value.....	15,017,485	19,613,967	30,485,714	23,864,285	42,466,210	31,725,393	29,426,510	38,823,995	38,729,112	41,163,387
Net Native Imports, market value.....	8,517,253	10,610,182	6,269,184	9,493,575	10,737,873	10,941,193	11,259,760	14,958,250	8,736,291	14,216,377
Net Imports.....	23,534,738	30,224,149	36,754,898	33,357,860	53,204,083	42,666,586	40,686,270	53,782,245	47,465,403	55,379,764
Deduct Duties paid at Shanghai	3,641,142	4,539,971	4,913,212	4,397,340	6,018,336	5,622,866	5,216,176	6,052,350	5,263,638	5,847,728
Net Imports, minus Duty.....	19,893,596	25,684,178	31,841,686	28,960,520	47,185,747	37,043,720	35,470,094	47,729,895	42,201,765	49,532,036
Deduct 7 per cent. for importers' profit, etc.	1,394,552	1,797,892	2,228,918	2,071,236	3,303,002	2,593,065	2,482,906	3,341,082	2,954,122	3,467,243
Imports, value at moment of landing.....	18,501,044	23,886,286	29,612,768	26,889,284	43,882,745	34,450,715	32,987,188	44,388,813	39,247,623	46,064,773

EXPORTS.

	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Original Exports, market value	38,859,997	37,749,878	45,340,093	61,634,482	41,831,213	59,166,376	47,958,025	70,822,474	50,263,756	62,546,012
Add Duty paid at Shanghai.....	1,197,786	1,053,345	1,180,823	1,411,345	1,374,649	1,427,075	1,190,899	1,582,065	1,288,084	1,655,742
Exports, plus Duty.....	40,057,783	38,803,223	46,520,916	63,045,827	43,205,862	60,593,451	49,148,924	72,404,539	51,551,840	64,201,754
Add 8 per cent. on market value for exporters' profit etc.	3,108,800	3,019,990	3,627,207	4,930,599	3,346,497	4,733,310	3,836,642	5,665,797	4,021,100	5,003,681
Exports, value at moment of shipment.....	43,166,583	41,823,213	50,148,123	67,976,426	46,552,359	65,326,761	52,985,566	78,070,336	55,572,940	69,205,435
EXPORTS EXCISED IMPORTS BY.....	24,665,539	17,936,927	20,535,355	41,041,142	2,660,614	30,876,046	19,998,378	33,681,523	16,425,317	23,140,662

(g.) The growth and development of the Settlements noted in the last Decennial Report has continued during the decade just past with even greater rapidity, in both increase of area and population, than during the 10 years previous to 1891. To say that the Foreign population north of the Yangkingpang has gained 77 per cent., as against 74 per cent. during the "eighties," is really not a fair comparison, since the gain has been made on a much larger base. Actual numbers form a more correct means of comparison. During the previous decade the census showed 1,624 Foreigners added to the roll; while in 1900 the returns show a 10-year gain of 2,953—and this, too, does not include any of the numerous refugees who came here that summer, for the census was taken in May, before the Boxer troubles had reached an acute state. Although no figures are available covering the period since the 1900 census was taken, it is a matter of common knowledge that in this interval, apart from the soldiers and sailors arrived, there has been an unequalled influx of Foreigners, who have been attracted to China by the added commercial opportunities that were expected to follow the settlement of the troubles of 1900. In this decade Shanghai has passed out of that stage of her development, where, as a smaller community, "everybody knew his neighbour," into the metropolitan life, where each element in society counts enough members to offer within its own body a sufficient circle of friends and acquaintances. It may be noticed that, whereas the proportionate increase of males was much greater than that of women and children during the previous decade, during the present they all show nearly the same—males, 75 per cent.; women, 80 per cent.; and children, 76 per cent. This may be taken to indicate that Shanghai is fast becoming the permanent home of a large portion of its Foreign population. The nationalities which have contributed most to the increase are—

British	1,117	German	281
Portuguese	414	American	239
Japanese	350		

The Native population has more than doubled during the 10 years, leaping from 168,129 in 1890 to 345,276 in 1900. This is partially accounted for by the extension of the Settlements in 1899; yet omitting those living in villages, huts, and boats, the actual increase of inhabitants paying taxes in the Settlements during the last five years is 83,795, as against an increase of 76,030 in the previous five years. The fact that the number of Chinese paying taxes increased more rapidly than the total number of Chinese during the earlier five years, when no extraordinary developments occurred, goes to show that those already in the Settlements are gradually coming to live on a higher scale and are taking advantage of the opportunities offered them for advancing along European lines of civilisation. Some indication of this is to be found in the fact that the number of Foreign houses has increased more rapidly than the Foreign population, and the number of these occupied by Chinese is constantly on the increase. Moreover, the decade has been essentially an era of building and rebuilding, so that the houses of the Chinese, as they now stand, are in many cases far superior to those in use 10 years ago—all over the Settlements crowded, dirty shanties are being pulled down and replaced by higher, roomy, and more substantial buildings.

Although an isolated piece of information, it is worth including here, as throwing more light upon the growth of the Settlements, that the number of jinrichas licensed in 1891

was 32,681, and in 1901, 60,915; while the number of wheel-barrows increased from 31,265 to 62,426.

In the French Concession the increase in the number of Foreigners has not been so marked; the 1900 census returned 622, against 444 for 1890, or 40 per cent. more. The Native population nearly doubled—98 per cent., to be exact,—rising from 40,722 in 1890 to 80,526 in 1900. The total increase, of 39,804, included 24,153 who had been taken into the Concession by the extension of 1900.

(4.) In almost every section of this Report the difficulty of adequately treating the changes that have taken place without indulging in what may be considered over-expression, or in the too frequent use of the word "increase," has been repeatedly encountered. In the section on municipal improvements this difficulty must appear in aggravated form.

As the trade and population of Shanghai have increased, the Settlements have been compelled to extend their boundaries to keep pace with the expansion, and even now, with the increased area on both sides of the Yangkingpang but a year or two back on history's record, they are again overflowing beyond the limits marked. This expansion in size is, without doubt, one of the most noteworthy items in the decade's history, but cannot entirely overshadow the intensive development and improvement which have been steadily going on. The first extension was made in 1893, when a large section was added to Hongkew, raising its total area to 7,800 *mou*. At that time the Settlement south of the Soochow Creek, which is commonly spoken of as the English Settlement, comprised only 2,806 *mou*. In May 1899 the Consular Body concluded negotiations with His Excellency LIU K'UN-I which led to the addition of the large tract of land beyond the Defence Creek, as far as the village at Bubbling Well and north to the Soochow Creek at Sinza—as well as a large section in the eastern district, or Hongkew, which doubled the area of that portion of the Settlement and included in it all the water front, with a strip of land nearly a mile wide as far down the Hwangpu as the Point. This addition to the Settlements increased their area from 2.75 to 8.35 square miles, or from 10,606 to 32,110 Chinese *mou*; and added to the assessment rolls *Shanghai* *Ta* 269,050 as the assessed value of the Foreign houses within the extension. By it were brought within the municipal boundaries the numerous residences along the Bubbling Well and Sinza Roads and the large mills on the Yangtzepoo Road. During the first six months of its administration by the Municipal Council the collections in the new area from all sources amounted to *Ta* 30,508.

As will be readily seen, such an expansion of territory under the control of the municipality necessitated the opening of new and the improvement of old roads, as well as an addition to the police force to patrol the new district. The extension of roads in and about the Settlement has been carried out with uniform rapidity during the whole of the period under review. The police force has increased in number from 404 at the end of 1891 to 822 at the end of 1901. The efficiency of the force has been advanced by the addition to the municipal buildings of a large and commodious central police station, at the corner of Honan and Foochow Roads. A grant of *Ta* 80,000 was authorised for the purpose by the ratepayers in February 1890, and that same year the plans of the architects were adopted by the Council. Work on the building began in April 1892, and by July 1894 the station was ready for occupation, having been completed at a cost to the municipality, exclusive of site and furniture, of *Ta* 76,000.

The building as it stands is a great credit to the Settlement, and provides quarters for 32 Foreigners, 13 Indians, and 92 Chinese on the force, as well as for the charge-room, offices, and stables, and cells for Foreign and Chinese prisoners. On 17th July 1894 Mr. J. L. SCOTT, chairman of the Municipal Council, formally opened and dedicated the building to its future of service to the Settlement.

The same meeting of ratepayers that voted the grant for the new central police station, refused to pass a resolution instructing the Municipal Council to have plans prepared and estimates submitted for a Town Hall and municipal offices; but its successor, six years later (1896), lent definite form to a movement for a Public Market and Drill Hall that had been formulating, by authorising the issue of *Ta* 150,000 worth of debentures to provide for such a building. The market lot on Nanking Road, between Kwangse and Kweichow Roads, was selected as the site of what, when finished, in the spring of 1899, became recognised as the most imposing and useful building in the Settlement. The Town Hall proper contains, on the ground floor, a Foreign market, with 33 stalls; and on the floor above, a Drill Hall, 157 by 80 feet, and several smaller rooms used by the members of the volunteer corps. The Drill Hall itself fulfils the long-felt need of a large room for public meetings and important social gatherings. At the back of this larger structure is the Chinese market shed, of iron and glass, which serves Native hawkers as an admirable place for disposing of their goods. Completed, the buildings cost *Ta* 209,000.

In addition to these two more important buildings, many others have been erected, among which are the Hongkew Market, in 1892, at a cost of *Ta* 24,000; the public abattoirs; the cemetery chapel and crematorium at the end of the Bubbling Well Road, which, with the cemetery, totalled *Ta* 56,200; the central fire station and Health Department offices on Honan Road, for which *Ta* 56,000 were appropriated; and the Victoria Nursing Home, which was built upon the Council's land, on the Rifle Range Road, from funds raised by public subscription. This institution, which has already proved its great usefulness to the community, superseded the Municipal Nursing Home which had been established by the Council in November 1896; it cost *Ta* 34,000, and offers accommodation for 23 patients. Besides all this expenditure for new buildings, about *Ta* 25,000 were devoted to purchasing and grading the Hongkew Public Park in 1897, while during the past year *Ta* 92,374 have been spent in acquiring a tract of land of 202 *mou*, just west of the Rifle Range, which it is proposed to convert into a public recreation ground. Many other extensive improvements might well be included; but the already long list will suffice to convey a proper idea of the rapid strides Shanghai has made along these lines of progress.

Probably the best manner of showing succinctly the way Shanghai has closed the century is to quote the figures of the total municipal receipts and expenditure for the first and last years of the decade:—

	RECEIPTS.	EXPENDITURE.
	<i>Ta</i>	<i>Ta</i>
1891	462,138	455,434
1901	1,337,719	1,309,727

At present there are outstanding municipal loans to the amount of $\text{T}1267,700$. Were we not living in an age when large public loans and great public works are matters of every-day occurrence, this process of trebling the expenditure of a municipality within a period of 10 years would elicit more than passing comment; but as it is, we forget the past, merely note the changes of the present, and look eagerly forward to seeing the promises for the future fulfilled.

Although the French Concession has not shown, in gross results, such phenomenal growth as the International Settlements, in its own sphere it has made great progress. In the first part of 1900 negotiations leading to the extension of the Concession, by which its area was increased from 1,023 to 2,135 *mou*, or more than doubled, were satisfactorily concluded, so that possession of the new territory was taken by the French on 1st March of that year. Even beyond the Concession limits, great activity has since then been shown in opening and developing the land, so that now it is provided with a system of broad, well-laid roads which afford ready access to large sections of suitable building lots. On it have also been erected the barracks of the French garrison stationed here. The police force in the Concession has been augmented since 1891, when it consisted of 42 Europeans and 66 Chinese, to 45 Europeans and 106 Chinese at the end of 1900, and it has cost for maintenance, during these two years, $\text{T}40,641$ and $\text{T}58,881$ respectively.

The French Municipal Council's reports show that the expenditure for 1891 amounted to $\text{T}141,769$, and for 1900 to $\text{T}369,157$. In the former year a credit balance of $\text{T}19,336$ was carried forward to the following year; while at the beginning of 1901, owing to expenditure on a new system of waterworks, which had been begun in 1898 and has just been finished, and to extensive improvements both in the Concession and the extension, a deficit of $\text{T}175,501$ had to be entered upon the accounts.

It is difficult to leave this section without yielding to the temptation at least to mention the attempts that have been made, at different times during the period, to provide Shanghai with a system of tramways. In the spring of 1895 the subject was brought before the ratepayers in a very thorough-going and comprehensive scheme, which was continually kept before the public during the following year, and was eventually submitted to the ratepayers at their next meeting. The resolution, however, was defeated. Then, in March 1898, the ratepayers went so far as to ask the Municipal Council to draw up plans and receive tenders, in which action the French municipality joined, and, as a result, they received another full exposition of the subject; but at their meeting in October the same year they refused to accept the tender reported, and thus practically nullified the work of the joint commission appointed by the two Councils. Once more the subject came up, in August of this past year, when a private individual asked permission to build an experimental section of tramway, looking, in the event of its successful operation, to the gradual construction of a permanent system with ramifications to all the more important districts on the outskirts of the Settlements. Similar action to that of former meetings relegated the question to its old status; and now, although a representative of an English firm is at present engaged in making plans and specifications for another system, there is little to indicate that Shanghai is any closer to a solution of her rapid-transit problem than she was a year or so ago.

(i.) * The principal changes which have taken place during the last decade in the water approaches to Shanghai are as follows:—

In the South Channel, the 18-foot passage to the northward of the Middle Ground, which had existed as the best channel for the previous 10 years, silted up in 1898. Since then the best water has been obtained by crossing the flat to the south-east of the Middle Ground (known locally as the Fairy Flats), on which the depth of 16 feet at low water of spring tides has been fairly constant for the past 15 years. Although there is thus 2 feet less of water in the shoalest part of the South Channel than there was at the commencement of the decade, this is considered to be due merely to the recurrent changes which are bound to occur and to have no bad significance. There is, I consider, no general sign of deterioration in this, the most important, approach to the port.

In the North Channel, great changes have taken place at its upper end during the latter half of the decade. From the time when the North Channel first opened—some time between 1841 and 1861,—the deep water at its upper end was to the immediate northward of Bush Island and Middle Island. In 1896, however, the channel here, which had been comparatively stable for so many years, commenced to close, until in 1900 its buoyage was discontinued. By this time a new channel, named the Tsungming Crossing, opened right across the Tsungming Bank; and this, with over 4 fathoms of water at low water of spring tides, caused, for a time, the North Channel to be the best approach to Woosung and the Yangtze, and enabled a vessel of 29 feet draught to anchor off Woosung. The Tsungming Crossing, however, has since deteriorated, and at the end of 1901 is rapidly closing. In the meantime a new channel is again opening up. This locality is, in fact, in a state of constant and rapid change, to an extent unprecedented within the experience of the present generation. It seems probable that the upsetting of the former comparatively stable condition in this neighbourhood is due to the number of junks (said to be 17) sunk here during the Chino-Japanese war while attempting to cross the mine-fields which were laid. The North Channel, along its entire length, from Shawsishan to its juncture with the South Channel, has shoaled considerably since the 1897 survey, and such signs as there are are those of general deterioration.

As regards the Hwangpu, the conditions for navigation have been considerably more favourable during the last decade than during the previous one, and larger vessels than before have been able to get up to Shanghai. This fact, however, is no guide as regards general deterioration or improvement. It appears to be the case, indeed, that as a tidal river or creek deteriorates, its depth increases. The real criterion as to deterioration is considered to be the narrowing of the channel, together with a decrease in the tidal volume. A comparative examination of the condition of the Hwangpu for the last 25 years—begun, but not yet completed—tends to show that, except in the vicinity of Gough Island, and recently at Woosung Outer Bar, there has been no appreciable diminution of the river low water capacity. This is evidence towards showing that even the combination of those changes due to natural physiographical causes and those due to artificial causes are not resulting in any permanent deterioration of the river.

* This section has been contributed by the Coast Inspector.

It is to be noted that the historical records of the local waterways show that great changes have, in the course of centuries, taken place in the direction of the main drainage from the Western Hills which form the watershed of this locality. It appears that at one time (about A.D. 400) the main drain was the present Liu-ho, the outlet of which is some 14 miles above Woosung; that at another, the present Soochow Creek, then called the Woosung-kiang, was the principal artery (but its mouth in those days was not in its present position). It appears, too, that the causes making for these changes have been in constant activity, and that there has always been one stream ameliorating while others were deteriorating. The Hwangpu is the most recent—and a comparatively young—representative of the main drain; the possible candidates for competition with it are comparatively few, and, as far as is known, there are no signs whatever of any activity in that direction. It is possible, therefore, and even probable, that the Hwangpu, from purely physiographical causes, is tending to ameliorate. This consideration, however, forms no argument against the necessity for conservancy works. A river, even when it is enlarging, is liable to changes, extending over considerable periods, affecting navigation detrimentally or otherwise. There can be no question of the Yangtze itself deteriorating, yet there are years when seriously obstructive shallows exist. And so in the Hwangpu, although it is maintained that its continuance as the main drain is not threatened by local causes, yet the migratory tendency of its channel in its lower part, and the increased liability to channel splitting in recent years, cause a probability to exist—which is practically a certainty—that, if nothing is done to remedy these two characteristics, a condition will soon be arrived at which will be most detrimental to navigation, and which may be expected to last for a long period.

Interesting to Shanghai, as is the condition of the Hwangpu, the permanence of the navigability of the South Channel Entrance to the Yangtze is of still more vital importance, and any light whatever on the subject is of interest.

There are three entrances to the Yangtze, i.e., the North Branch, the North Channel, and the South Channel. Unfortunately, a complete record of the surveys since the first, in 1842, does not appear to exist in China, though doubtless it is available at the British Hydrographic Office. The early charts possessed are so patched with corrections that it has been found impossible to distinguish the dates of the various portions; such as they are, however, they show:—

- 1°. That the North Branch has more water in it now, in the strait between the western end of Tsungming and the mainland, than in the early surveys. There is, however, nothing to show that this channel is ameliorating at the expense of the others, nor that there is any tendency of the downward current to flow through it more than formerly.
- 2°. That the North Channel was practically non-existent previous to about 1850; but that about then a channel, broad and deep, rapidly cut its way through the mass of shallows previously existing. For the last few years this channel has been steadily shoaling up.
- 3°. That the South Channel has remained fairly stable.

It may be of interest to note that, according to Dr. EDKINS, some evidence exists, in the ancient topographical records, that the southern branch of the Yangtze formerly followed the course of the present Grand Canal and debouched in the Hangchow Bay, and that the present Shanghai plain then existed as a huge alluvial island.

(j.) * Between 1892 and 1901 the following new lights have been established in this district:—

Woosung Inner Bar Light-boat	1895
Drinkwater Point	1898
Liuchiao	1899

In 1899 a new *Tungsha* Light-vessel was placed in position. In 1900 a new tower was erected at Gutzlaff, showing a distinctive light in place of the old fixed one. The fixed lights at the following stations were also changed to distinctive ones:—

Kiutoan Small Beacon	1895
Shaweishan	1899
Kiutoan Light-vessel	1899

Of buoys, there have been established the following:—

South-east Knoll Buoy	1892	Kiutoan Flats Buoy	1899
Peking Wreck Buoy	1892	Bush Island Buoy	1899
Middle Island Buoy	1892	West Spit Buoy	1900
Ch'i-yao Bank Buoy	1892	Second Crossing Buoy	1900
Fairway Bell Buoy	1893	First Crossing Buoy	1900
Blockhouse Shoal Buoy	1897	East Entrance Buoy	1900
Upper Crossing Buoy	1898	Ch'i-yao Bank Outer Buoy	1900
Mason Bank Buoy	1898	Shaweishan Bank Buoy	1900
Middle Ground Upper Buoy	1898	Fort Buoy	1900
Tsungming Bank Upper Buoy	1899	Midway Flat Buoy	1901

The following buoys have been discontinued:—

Peking Wreck Buoy	1893	Bush Island Buoy	1900
Lismore Wreck Buoy	1896	Tsungming Bank Upper Buoy	1900
Middle Ground Upper Buoy	1897	Tsungming Bank Buoy	1900
Blockhouse Shoal Buoy	1899	Midway Flat Buoy	1901
Dove's Nest Buoy	1899	Shaweishan Bank Buoy	1901
Triumph Bank Buoy	1899	Ch'i-yao Bank Outer Buoy	1901
Actæon Buoy	1899	Second Crossing Buoy	1901
Centaur Lower Buoy	1899		

During the period there was thus a total addition of five buoys.

* This section has been contributed by the Coast Inspector.

Of beacons for surveying purposes, the following have been erected and maintained:—

- 12 trestle beacons.
- 2 tripod beacons.
- 5 pole beacons.

In July and August of 1894 the buoys in the North Channel Entrance to the Yangtze, and those marking the Harvey Channel and the Centaur and Langshan Crossings, were, by order of the Imperial Commissioner of Southern Trade, removed, as a defensive measure consequent upon the Chino-Japanese war; and in September and October of the same year the North Channel was mined, at its upper end, by the Chinese naval and military authorities. The aids to navigation in the South Channel were not interfered with, and free communication with Shanghai existed throughout the war.

After the declaration of peace the buoyage of the Yangtze between Woosung and Langshan was again established (July 1895).

In August 1895 the Chinese torpedo officers proceeded to remove the explosive obstructions to navigation in the North Channel, and, of the 170 mines laid, 97 were said to have been recovered and 30 otherwise accounted for, leaving a remainder of 43 missing. The uncertainty as to the safety of the channel, consequent upon these missing mines, rendered its opening inadvisable, until after a long lapse of time or the undertaking of some special operations. The latter course was eventually decided upon, and a member of the Customs Service (Mr. W. F. TYLER) was lent to the Nanyang fleet to conduct the operations. After four months work, the North Channel, from Bush Island to Drinkwater Point, was systematically swept, and though many remains of the mining gear were found, no intact mines were recovered. The area of the channel searched in the work was 41 square miles, and the aggregate of the bottom swept was 71 square miles. It is said that these sweeping operations are unprecedented in magnitude.

The channel was buoyed again in January 1897.

The following surveys have been made during the decade; with one exception, they were made by or under the direction of the Coast Inspector:—

- 1892.—North Channel, Bush Island to Shaweishan.
- 1893.—Hwangpu, Outer Bar to Black Point.
- 1894.—Shanghai Harbour.
- 1896.—South Channel, Woosung to outside Tungsha.
- 1897.—North Channel, Bush Island to Drinkwater Point.
Hwangpu, Point to Outer Bar.
- 1898.—Bank to the north of Shaweishan.
Tsungming Bank.
Centaur Crossing.
Kintoan and Fairy Flats.
Shanghai Harbour, Kinleeyuen to Arsenal.
Soochow Creek, mouth to Stone Bridge.

- 1900.—Tsungming Bank and Crossing.
North Channel, Middle Island to Shaweishan (by the British surveying vessel *Waterwitch*).
Blockhouse to Fairy Flats.
Hwangpu, Black Point to Outer Bar.
Shanghai Harbour.
Woosung to North Tree Beacon.
- 1901.—Tsungming Crossing (twice).
Fairy Flats.

The following operations for the removal of wrecks have been conducted by the Coast Inspector's Department during the period:—

- 1893.—S.S. *Peking*, in Bonham Strait.
- 1894.—Hulk *Lulu*, in Shanghai Harbour.
- 1895.—S.S. *Feima*, Inner Woosung Bar.
S.S. *Nora*, Inner Woosung Bar.
S.S. *Lismore*, Outer Woosung Bar.
- 1896.—S.S. *Onwo*, at Woosung.
Dredger *Anding*, in Shanghai Harbour.
Pilot-boat *Syren*, in South Channel.
- 1897.—Pilot-boat *C. P. Blethen*, outside Tungsha.
S.S. *Birkhall*, at Woosung (commenced).
- 1899.—S.S. *Fairy*, in South Channel.

(k.) Without doubt the greatest calamity that befell Shanghai during the period under review was the sinking of the Indo-China Navigation Company's s.s. *Onwo* by the China Navigation Company's s.s. *Newchwang*, and the consequent loss of life. Early on the morning of 30th April 1896 the *Onwo* was passing over Woosung Bar, on her way to Hankow, with a large number of Chinese passengers on board, when the *Newchwang* was entering from Amoy. As the Naval Court of Inquiry, appointed to investigate the collision, subsequently found, the captain of the *Newchwang* made the mistake of starboarding instead of porting his helm to the *Onwo*'s red light, and thus caught the other ship on the quarter before she could clear. The *Onwo* sank immediately, and the *Newchwang* had to be grounded to save her. How many of the *Onwo*'s passengers were drowned could not be accurately ascertained; but inasmuch as 241 bodies were finally recovered, the total was estimated at from 275 to 300. Among those who were drowned were five Europeans, including Captain SLESSAR of the *Onwo*.

The following is a list of "total losses" for the period:—

- 1892.—6th May.—German s.s. *Peking* was run into and sunk by the Chinese s.s. *Fushun*, in Bonham Strait.
- 8th November.—British s.s. *Feima* sunk by British s.s. *Hangchow*, near the Woosung Inner Bar. Her wreck caused the formation of a new channel, which became known as the Feima Channel.

- 1894.—21st May.—German s.s. *Alwine Seyd* struck on the Barren Islands and became a total wreck. Two of the Chinese crew were drowned.
- 17th September.—Chinese transport *Chean* (late s.s. *Whaon*), bound from Chinkiang to Tainan, with 800 soldiers on board, sprang a leak, and, to prevent her foundering, had to be run ashore on an island 50 miles north of Wenchow, where she became a total wreck. Several lives were lost.
- 1895.—13th January.—British s.s. *Taiwo* ran aground on the Centaur Shoal and became a total wreck.
- 13th April.—Swedish s.s. *Nora*, inward bound, collided with the wreck of the *Feima* and was lost.
- 10th July.—British s.s. *Birkhall*, lying moored below Princes Wharf, was run into by the Chinese ram-bowed man-of-war *Hwangtai* and sunk.
- 1896.—30th April.—British s.s. *Onwo* collided with British s.s. *Newchwang*, in the vicinity of the Feima Channel Light-boat, and sank, as already described.
- 19th May.—Licensed pilot-boat *Syren*, at anchor in the vicinity of the Fairway Bell Buoy, was run into and sunk by the British s.s. *Flintshire*.
- 9th June.—Dredger *Anding* sank, just below the British Naval Buoy, nearly opposite the Custom House. Her wreck has been only partially removed.
- 1898.—26th October.—Chinese lorcha *Chintungtai*, bound from Shanghai to Hankow, struck on the North Tree Rocks and broke up.
- 1899.—23rd January.—Chinese-owned steam-launch, anchored close in shore, on the Shanghai side of the 8th section of the harbour, caught fire and was burnt to the water's edge.
- 3rd May.—German pilot-boat *Hans*, at anchor near the Bell Buoy, was run down and sunk by the Japanese s.s. *Saikio Maru*. Under instructions from the Harbour Master, the wreck was blown up, on 6th May, by the revenue steamer *Kaipan*.

Twice during the 10 years small-pox has assumed epidemic proportions in Shanghai—once in 1893, when 11 Foreigners and 184 Chinese died from the effects of the disease, and again in the early part of 1899, when nine Foreigners and 183 Chinese succumbed. Great care is constantly being exercised by the municipal authorities to prevent the spread of infectious and contagious diseases, and the wonder is that, with such a large element of Natives in the population, they succeed as well as they do. In the summer of 1895 cholera again appeared, after the Settlement had had three years immunity from it; 20 Foreigners and about 930 Chinese died, mostly in August. The average death rate of the resident Foreign population, however, shows wonderful improvement over that in the "eighties"—16.9, in comparison with 20.6, per 1,000.

Although the port has, thus far, been free from that dread disease which swept London in 1665, under the name of the "black plague," its appearance, first in Canton and Hongkong, and later—in refutation of cherished theories about its inability to live north of a certain parallel of latitude—at Newchwang and in Japan, has led to the adoption of rigorous quarantine and

sanitary measures, by the authorities of the port and municipality, to guard against its entrance here. In May 1894, when Hongkong and Canton were declared infected and quarantined against, the Customs immediately provided for a medical examination of all vessels arriving from these ports, and required from them an "Admission to Pratique" before allowing them to enter and work; this inspection continued until the middle of September. Great vigilance and activity were shown on the part of the Municipal Council in thoroughly cleansing the Settlement, and erecting temporary hospitals and a fumigating station at Pootung and at Yangtzepoo. During the summer the trade with Hongkong gradually declined, until it practically ceased. Again, in 1896, quarantine measures had to be resorted to with all shipping from these southern ports; but this time with little or no interference to trade, save a slight decrease in the Native passenger traffic. Then in 1898 the inspection was once more required. In April of the following year the sanitary station on Chung-pao-sha Island, outside Woosung, was opened, and the inspecting physicians, before the quarantine was raised, in December, examined 422 vessels and 55,589 persons. The value of the station has been clearly demonstrated during the past two years, when Manila, Formosa, Amoy, Swatow, Newchwang, and Japan have been added to the list of infected places and a vast increase of work has been entailed upon the officers in charge. From time to time passengers in considerable numbers have been detained under observation, but, thus far, no trouble and very little friction have occurred.

Although Shanghai itself suffered no real damage from the floods of last summer, other than was incident to a reduction of the Yangtze trade, the community here realised the suffering caused in the river towns, and helped to provide for large numbers of Chinese who had been rendered destitute by the abnormal rains. A committee was organised to collect a Yangtze Flood Relief Fund, and up to date has raised about \$17,000, by subscriptions from hongs, banks, and individuals. The funds, as received, have been despatched to sub-committees at different points along the river. In Wuhu, where the distress was keenest, great relief has been given by the unselfish work of the committee there, in planning and supervising work on repairs to the river banks, which has afforded an opportunity for the indigent sufferers to earn enough to sustain themselves until their crops could be put in and worked. Many women and children have been directly supplied with food and shelter.

(L.) Shanghai, by virtue of her peculiarly happy location as a port of transshipment to and from the North, and her constantly growing commercial importance, has become a recognised port of call in the itineraries of distinguished persons travelling in the Far East on embassies or for pleasure. Moreover, the cosmopolitan character of the Settlements themselves gives almost unequalled opportunities for those international amenities and expressions of friendship which, though comparatively unimportant in themselves, often exert an enduring influence upon the more serious relations of the nations concerned. This feature of the visits of distinguished persons to Shanghai has been especially prominent during the last 10 years of the old century, so fraught with great changes in international relations and with events of world-wide concern.

In May 1896 His Excellency the late LI HUNG-CHANG passed through, on his way to St. Petersburg as the special Ambassador of the Emperor of China to His Imperial Majesty the Czar. As is well known, he returned to China in the following October, after having completed

what might almost be called a triumphal tour of the leading countries of the world. How different from the earlier ones was the reception given him the last time he landed here. On 21st July 1900 he came north, from Canton, to attempt to open negotiations with the representatives here of those Powers which had four years previously so royally received and entertained him in their several capitals. As he landed, none but the officials of his own country met him, and his only guard of honour was, first, a squad of French, and then of English, policemen. The critical state of affairs at Peking forbade any official courtesies being paid him, and his wholly unsatisfactory position precluded any negotiations looking to a settlement. Thus it was that this veteran Chinese statesman left Shanghai, for the last time, in response to his ruler's call to proceed North and attempt to unravel the most tangled knot into which it had ever been the lot of Chinese affairs of State to get.

His Excellency CHANG YIN-HUAN, China's special Ambassador on the occasion of H.B.M. Queen VICTORIA's Jubilee, passed through Shanghai in April 1897, and returned in November.

Probably no visit during the decade better illustrates the importance that may attach to these exchanges of courtesies than that of Prince OUKHTOMSKY, the special Russian Ambassador, who arrived here on 10th May 1897, on his way to the Court at Peking. The "North-China Herald," in commenting upon the reception prepared for him, says: "No such complete preparations have ever been made before for any distinguished visitor, even for the Russian Grand Dukes who have visited Shanghai, the English Princes, the German Prince HEINRICH, the Czarevitch himself, or even General GRANT." On behalf of Viceroy LIU K'UN-I, the Taotai gave a tiffin for the Prince; and on the day of departure, he and his associate, Prince WOLKONSKY, were entertained with a tiffin at the Hotel des Colonies by the management of the China Merchants Steam Navigation Company. On Friday, the 14th, they embarked, with numerous and costly Imperial gifts which they were carrying to the Emperor.

In April 1898 Prince HENRY of Prussia came here, on the cruiser *Gefion*, as an Admiral of the German navy. His stay of a week was marked by a continuous flow of hospitality, on the part of both German subjects and Foreign residents as a whole. On the day of his arrival he was given a picnic at the Mandarin's Grave, near the Pagoda. The following day he received the members of the Consular Body in the morning, and in the evening attended a ball, at the Bureau of Foreign Affairs, that was arranged by His Excellency KUEI CH'UN, Governor of Kiangsu, His Excellency NIEH CH'U-KUEI, Provincial Treasurer, and Ts'AI Taotai. On Tuesday, the third day ashore, he was entertained by the Foreign residents of Shanghai at a public tiffin in Chang Su-ho's Gardens; following in quick succession came the ball that evening, at the Club Concordia, and numerous less formal entertainments. On Thursday, at Woosung, he reviewed 3,000 German-drilled Chinese infantry, and supplemented this the following afternoon by reviewing the German volunteer company. His whole visit was marked by the warmest cordiality, and must have left upon his mind indelible impressions of Shanghai's goodwill and hospitality.

Two years after the visit of Prince HENRY, another member of one of the Royal families of Europe came here as an officer in his country's navy. H.R.H. Prince WALDEMAR of Denmark touched at Shanghai in February 1900, and received a repetition of the hearty

welcome given the Prussian Prince. After a series of social honours paid him by both the Chinese and Foreign officials, as well as by the small but enthusiastic colony of his own countrymen in Shanghai, a large ball was arranged in his honour by the Foreign residents, under the direction of a committee of the Municipal Council. It was a fitting ending to the numerous proofs of friendship and goodwill which he had received while here.

Incident to the Boxer troubles in the following summer, there was, of course, a constant coming and going of naval and military officials of high rank. But among them all, Field Marshal Count VON WALDERSEE, by reason of his peculiar and unique position as commander of a force composed of so many different national units, was by far the most conspicuous officer connected with the latter periods of the struggle. He disembarked on the 19th of September, after a demonstrative welcome from all the men-of-war and shipping in the harbour, to witness the largest military display Shanghai had, up to that day, ever made. Yet on the following morning she surpassed herself. Early in the day the Field Marshal held a review on the Recreation Ground of all the regular and volunteer forces in Shanghai. The scene was a memorable one. Men from all parts of the world passed in review before the venerable Marshal, who represented the combined authority of so many nations in dealing with the tangle in the North. Needless to say, he was royally entertained and shown every attention, during his few days ashore, before embarking for the North. His visit will be chiefly remembered, by Shanghai in general, as the occasion of a great military display and of a unification of different national elements into one great whole, bound together by the common feeling of indignation at the treatment of their countrymen in the North.

It is peculiarly significant that the next person whose coming we mark was the emissary of the Emperor of China, on his way to the Court of the Kaiser to make expiatory apologies for the murder of the German Minister at Peking: less than a year intervened between the departure of the Field Marshal and the arrival of the Embassy of Peace. His Highness Prince CH'UN, brother of the Emperor, arrived here, on the *Anping*, on Tuesday, 16th July 1901. His reception by the Chinese officials and gentry was enthusiastic and elaborate, and would have been even more so, had not the Prince, by his own directions, forbidden too elaborate display or entertainment, as not in keeping with the character of his mission or with the position of the Imperial Court at that time. Great crowds turned out to catch a glimpse of the Prince, and innumerable yellow dragon flags marked the route from the wharf to the Bureau of Foreign Affairs, where he stayed while in Shanghai. Beyond this, however, the Chinese were not allowed to show him more than the formal greeting incident to their calls, for he declined their invitations to a banquet and theatricals, for the reasons just given; but he accepted the entertainment prepared for him by the German Consul General, when he met at tiffin the official representatives of the Foreign Powers, and would have gone through the programme arranged for him by the British community, if he had not been prevented by illness. He left on Saturday, the 20th, by the *Bayern*, for Europe, after having created among all those who came in contact with him an impression of frankness and nobility of character worthy of a Prince of any nation. During his stay he received calls from the members of the Consular Body and of the Customs, and on the day of his departure was conveyed to Woosung on the

revenue steamer *Kaipan*. On his return from Germany he stopped here during the first week of November, and then received, at the hands of the Chinese officials, many of the attentions he had in the spring commanded them to withhold.

(m.) During the period, one man—CHANG CH'EN (張馨), a native of Tungchow—has been made a *chuang-yüan*. He won the honour in 1894.

(n.) These 10 years in China have been marked by decided progress in the introduction of what is termed "Western learning." Already approved and assisted by the more advanced Viceroy of the Yangtze Valley, the movement has just been given the necessary official hall-mark which makes possible permanent and stable growth. The Empress Dowager's Edict of 14th September 1901, ordering the different provincial officials to establish military academies and general schools on a modern basis, has been liberally interpreted and acted upon, in some of the provinces, in a way that promises good results, if only an effective standard can be attained. As yet there have been no direct results of this edict in the Kiangsu province; but there has been a continuous and steady development during the last few years which has laid a foundation for the higher work that may follow.

Dr. EDKINS has supplied the following notes on the opening of new schools:—

"In 1898 the Governor of Kiangsu, KUI CH'UN, obtained an edict to found the 中西書院 in Soochow. When the edict of 14th September 1901, commanding the Governors to found schools, arrived, the Governor of Kiangsu, NIEH CH'Y-KUEI, asked leave to change the Chung Hai Shu-yüan into a provincial school for 100 pupils. Several tens of thousands of taels were set apart for its expenses.

"The Cheng I Shu-yüan (正誼書院) was also changed into a prefectural school, as required by the edict. The number of pupils is 60. T'ia 10,000, which are paid in part by the Treasurer and in part by the Defence Department, are annually devoted to the support of this school.

"The schools for the district magistracies are formed from the Ping Chiang Shu-yüan (平江書院). 40 pupils are on the roll. The expense is borne by the three magistracies. There appears to be but one school at present; but probably this will be remedied by the use of Buddhist temples. Outside the provincial capital, schools will be under the management of the *literati* in each city.

"Other cities in the province where colleges are changed to schools are Sungkiang (蘇江), Shanghai (上海), Changchow (常州), Changshu (常熟), Chao-wên-hsien (昭文縣), and Wusi (無錫). In this last-named city are two schools, the 東林書院 and the 埃實學堂.

"The Confucian temple in Soochow possesses land which was given in A.D. 1034, by FAN CHUNG-TANG, a noted scholar of his time. He gave 500 *mou*, to support the students, who are called 學徒. More land was given later by various donors. In 1860 Soochow fell into the hands of the Taipings, who burned the Confucian temple. In 1864, when the late LI HUNG-CHANG became Governor, he built a new temple with college edifice adjoining; in 1868, when TING JIH-CHANG was Governor, the buildings were finished. The prefectural college (府學) exists with it. The land is now in extent no less than 3,338 *mou*. All persons of the FAN family clan are supported by it."

Several schools for girls have also been opened. Again quoting Dr. EDKINS:—

"A female school at Soochow has been founded by a Changchow lady. It is now being well attended. There are to be periodical examinations in explaining books, in handwriting, in composition, and in the use of the abacus.

"When Prefect KING YUEN-SHAN, of Shanhing, founded a girls school near the Shanghai Arsenal, the school was closed, by order of KANG I, on account of money due by KING YUEN-SHAN to the Telegraph Company, which he could not pay. He was obliged to take refuge with the Portuguese at Macao, and is now at Canton. He used T'ia 5,000. The school funds were chiefly subscribed by various persons, but the Prefect was known as the founder.

"In the first month of the new year a school for 50 girls will be opened within the South Gate of the Shanghai city. Chinese and English studies form the programme."

Here, at Shanghai, a preparatory school for boys was established in July 1899, by a Ningpo merchant named TENG CHUNG-MENG, and took its name from the founder: 澄衷蒙學堂. It has accommodation for 300 pupils, 140 of whom are provided for by the endowment, while the other 160 pay \$24 a year for their tuition, board, and school-room supplies. They are from 7 to 16 years of age, and are supposed to complete the full course in six years. With a corps of 20 Chinese teachers, and with daily sessions of over eight hours, during 10 months of the year, this school is in a position to do—and is doing, according to the best information that can be procured—excellent work. All instruction is given in Chinese.

Nanyang College (南洋公學), a much larger school, modelled on Western lines, was opened here in September 1897, on the Memorial of His Excellency SHENG HSUAN-HUAI, to which an Imperial Rescript was issued on 7th July 1898. His Excellency SHENG and his Chinese secretary Ho—the latter of whom became the first director of the college, and continued in that office until his death in February 1901—were the originators and promoters of the movement, and the former will always be known as the founder and patron of the college. Through his influence, an annual grant of T'ia 50,000 from the China Merchants Steam Navigation Company, and one of equal amount from the Imperial Chinese Telegraphs, approved and endorsed by Imperial Edict, making a total yearly income of T'ia 100,000, were secured for the foundation and maintenance of the institution. From this sum the property was acquired and the buildings erected, since, during the first years of the college, it was sufficient both to cover the current and provide for these extraordinary expenses. The object of its founders was that the college should take students who had already received a good Chinese education, allow them to continue their studies in Chinese literature, and at the same time give them a thorough Western education. They were to be recommended every three years by the college, conjointly with the Literary Chancellor of Kiangsu, for recognition and promotion. As there was no geographical allotment fixed or restrictions imposed, the students come from all parts of the Empire; but the majority are, of course, drawn from Shanghai and Soochow and vicinity. They gain admission by competitive examinations, held at the close of the 5th moon of each year. To know that at last summer's examination 1,000 applicants presented themselves, for 70 possible vacancies, adds weight to the statement that the college is appreciated by the

Chinese. Once passed in, the students receive free board and tuition; but all their other expenses, for books, clothes, and the like, are borne by themselves. The college is located near Sicawei, about 5 miles from the Bund, and consists of two large dormitory and school buildings, besides houses for the staff of Foreign teachers. Of these there are, at present, five, who give instruction in the general six-year course in English, and in the three-year courses in political science and history, chemistry and physics, and railroad engineering, which latter, however, have not yet been publicly announced in the college's published list. One day of each week is given up to Chinese studies, for which there is a corps of Native teachers retained, who also act as proctors during the remainder of the time.

Yet this activity in the establishment and opening of modern schools and colleges, in and about Shanghai, must not be allowed to overshadow the impetus that has recently been given to the movement to supply the Native population with reading matter. The decade—especially the latter half, since the China-Japan war—has witnessed the inception of several Chinese newspapers and magazines, many of which have already attained a wide circulation. Mr. ERNEST BOX, an authority on Native papers and periodicals, writing in the "North-China Herald" of 17th October 1898, says that four years before that date there were but 12 Native newspapers, all of which were published in Hongkong or the Treaty ports, while in 1898 there were in Shanghai alone 15 Chinese newspapers published regularly. "There are, in addition, at least another 20 newspapers published in other parts of China. We have thus, in all, as a minimum estimate, 35 Native newspapers, almost all dailies, circulated regularly and extensively throughout China. Turning to magazines and other periodicals, we find that in February 1895 there were only eight, all of which were published in connexion with missionary work. . . . There are to-day no less than 35 publications of this class, of which over 25 are issued in Shanghai. The majority of these are published by the Chinese themselves, and almost all have as their object the enlightenment and reform of China. . . . There are thus not less than 70 Native newspapers and magazines now published and circulated in China, and their number is being added to almost every day. . . . There are two schools of thought already clearly recognised and defined—they are known as the 守舊黨 or conservative party, and the 維新黨, or liberal (i.e., reform) party. It is noteworthy that while there is not, among these 70 publications, one which advocates the views of the former party, all are, in a greater or less degree, preaching reform."

It should be also noticed in this connexion that, during the past year, one of the wealthy members of the Shanghai gentry has offered the Municipal Council a gift of \$50,000, for the purpose of building and equipping a public library and museum, if that body will annually appropriate enough for its running expenses. When this offer was made, Sir THOMAS HANBURY said that he would add a like amount to the donation for this purpose. Now, however, there seems to be some doubt as to whether the money first offered will be forthcoming from the intending donor, owing to recent difficulties into which he has fallen. The duplicate offer is conditionally dependent upon the first one; but it is rumoured that, even if the original proposer of the scheme cannot fulfil his promise, the money may be raised elsewhere, and the offer of Sir THOMAS HANBURY be thus saved to Shanghai.

(c.) Everyone who has had any experience in attempting to gather definite information about purely Chinese subjects will appreciate at once the difficulty of securing accurate results. Of the estimated population of 20,905,000 in the province of Kiangsu, the number of men classed as superficial readers is said to be about 60 in 100, while those classed as scholars, or literary, are placed at from 5 to 10. What proportion of the women can read, it seems almost impossible to state with any hope of approaching accuracy, for the estimates given range from 10 up to 30 in 100, with the possibility of about one or two being able to compose poetry. Much has been done, during the decade, for the education of Chinese girls by the establishment of the schools mentioned in section (n.) of this Report, yet many years must elapse before the per-centage of educated females in the total population of the province can be materially raised.

(p.) and (q.)

(r.) The Native banking establishments of Shanghai are divided into three classes: the draft or Shansi banks, known as Hsi Pang (西幫); the local banks, or Ch'ien Chuang (錢莊); and the cash shops, or Ch'ien P'u (錢鋪).

The Hsi Pang, or draft banks, are commonly called the Shansi banks, because a large majority of the owners and managers of these institutions are men from the province of Shansi, and, although several are managed by other provincials, this predominance of the Shansi men has given the name to the whole class. In Shanghai there are 21 such establishments:—

Wei T'ai Hou (蔚泰厚)	Jih Hsin Ch'ang (日新昌)
Wei Chang Hou (蔚長厚)	Te'un I Kung (存義公)
Chung Ch'eng Hsin (忠誠信)	Chung Hsing Ho (中興和)
San Chin Yuan (三晉元)	Chih Ch'eng Hsin (志成信)
Hsieh Ch'eng Ch'ien (協成乾)	Hsieh Tung Ch'ing (協同慶)
Hsieh Ho Hsin (協和信)	Ho Sheng Yuan (合盛元)
Ta Tê Yu (大德玉)	Ta Tê Heng (大德恆)
Ta Tê Tung (大德通)	Yuan Feng Jun (源豐潤)
T'ien Shun Hsiang (天順祥)	Wei Feng Hou (蔚豐厚)
Pai Ch'uan Tung (百川通)	Hsieh Shun Ch'ing (協順慶)
Hsin T'ai Hou (新泰厚)	

Most of these banks have their ramifications all over the Empire, and grant drafts on all the important commercial points and the provincial capitals, either through branches of their own establishment or through correspondents. Their total yearly business, in and out, is about T'ia 80,000,000. In addition to the issue of drafts, a very important feature of their business is their work at Peking, whither they remit official moneys, and where they also make loans to the newly-appointed officials at extremely lucrative rates of interest.

The use of commercial paper has now become so nearly universal between the large cities that sycee is seldom carried by travellers, or shipped by merchants or bankers, save when peculiar conditions in local markets make such transfers of silver profitable. The profit accruing to the bankers from these drafts, which amounts, roughly speaking, to about T'ia 2

or Ta 3 on every Ta 1,000 handled, comes both from the small exchange charged and the interest on the money received in payment for the drafts. The rate of exchange is fixed by the market, just as in the Foreign system, and each bank, I am told, has runners out inquiring the rates at which other houses are granting drafts on the different points, so that, as a rule, the purchase of these drafts is not accompanied by much of that inevitable chaffering which attaches to all Chinese commercial transactions; custom, however, demands that some concessions be given old patrons. Most of the drafts are sight drafts, but time ones are also granted. As the drafts are drawn payable to some hong, or some person in a certain hong, the receiving bank will not pay out the money to the person presenting the draft, except in cases of very small amounts to well-known customers, but insists upon delivering the cash to the hong whose stamp has been affixed with the endorsement, and, incidentally, subjects the recipient to the payment of 200 cash per Ta 1,000 as double coolie hire; between banks themselves the same custom obtains, save that, with them, only single coolie hire, or 100 cash, is demanded. When sending these drafts from place to place, the Chinese despatch them almost entirely through the Native postal hong, which they trust with large amounts with the greatest sense of security. The hong will register a letter containing a draft for a little more than they will an ordinary letter, and their charges for registering drafts of larger amounts decrease proportionately as the amount increases. Their risk is not great; for, since the drafts are all drawn to order, they have, on losing a draft, simply to telegraph to the bank and order payment to be stopped, and in cases where the delay caused by advertising and in forwarding a new draft has resulted in loss to the sender, through a drop or rise in the exchange, the hong have been known to make good the loss.

In addition to their draft business, the Shansi banks also receive on deposit and lend moneys, just as the local banks do, the chief difference being the enlarged scale of their operations, in this class of business, as compared with the local institutions. In fact, in many cases the local banks are the borrowers, and sometimes depend entirely for their funds upon the richer houses. This very wealth is their stronghold and guarantee. In the last 10 years there have been no failures recorded in this class; for whenever one Shansi bank is in difficulty, others come to its assistance, in a way which the absence of such close family or local affiliations makes impossible in the case of the local banks and Foreign establishments. With the banks themselves this principle goes even farther: the managers and accountants are supposed to be adopted members of the master's family, and are supported by him for life, if their services have been satisfactory.

The local banks, numbering about 45, confine their operations almost entirely to the ordinary receiving of deposits and the negotiation of local loans, although some grant drafts on the neighbouring cities of Ningpo, Soochow, and Hangchow. Their capital comes largely from loans from the Shansi banks, at from 5 to 8 per cent. They allow from 4 to 6 per cent. on deposits, and they lend money at from 6 or 7 to 14 per cent., according to the standing of the borrower and the market rate of interest. These loans are either made in hard money or by placing to the credit of the patron the amount loaned, in which case, as is true of the ordinary depositor as well, the bank charges a fee, at the rate of 3 mace per Ta 1,000, on all cheques

drawn against the account for negotiation. When these loans are made to men with "good names," no security of any kind is given or required, thus putting the transaction on a basis of confidence alone; but when the banker is unwilling to trust the applicant, he requires the latter to produce some reliable man who will guarantee him against loss. Several of these local banks "suspend payment" almost every year; but those that have done so during the past 10 years have all finally settled in full, so that no loss has resulted to their creditors.

The cash shops depend for their profits solely upon the number of strings of cash they pass out in exchange.

There are also some private bankers who have established such reputations that merchants trust them quite as fully as they do the large banks. In most cases the managers are men from a certain province to which large amounts of money are sent from Shanghai, and they handle only the one branch of business. Take, for example, the few Szechwan bankers here, who remit every year a part of the proceeds of the Native opium sent down to be sold on the Shanghai market.

(s.) The Native postal hong in Shanghai do not differ enough in their operations, functions, and management from those in the various other ports, which were treated of in the Decennial Reports for 1882-91, to warrant any general description being added. The distinguishing feature of the Shanghai hong is to be found in their importance as head or central offices of almost all the large establishments which operate on the coast north of Amoy and Swatow and throughout the Yangtze Valley. In the extreme south, and overlapping into the sphere which Shanghai hong claim, the big Canton houses have the lion's share of the business; also in the west, some of the Hankow hong independent of Shanghai carry on the bulk of the distributing. Some of the firms here have, however, branches in Hankow and Canton, and control distribution beyond those points; but most depend upon agencies in these places to extend their systems. All the hong are supported by private enterprise, and most of them have two or three partners composing the firm, who, as a rule, do not all remain here, but go out to supervise the work of sub-offices, each one managing the business in his designated district.

When the Chinese Imperial Post was established, provision was made, in the "Regulations laid before the Emperor in the Yamén's Memorial," requiring Native postal establishments at the union stations (i.e., places where there are Imperial post offices) to register at the Imperial Post Office, and to deliver to it all mail matter collected by them for despatch from, to, or through union stations. In compliance with this there have registered at Shanghai, up to the present time, 46 hong which send mail over the routes included in the I.P.O. service, or, in other words, which despatch their letters, etc., from here by steamer; the best information that can be obtained of the unregistered hong, which despatch their mail matter by couriers overland or by small boats on the inland-waters routes, and hence do not necessarily come into direct contact with the Imperial Post, gives their number as 25—thus making, in all, about 70 Native postal hong operating in Shanghai. A list of both the registered and unregistered establishments, with the names of the places to and from which mails are despatched and received, and with the rates of postage charged, is appended to this Report (see Appendix).

One observation should be made in regard to the method of collecting the postage. As stated in the previous Decennial Reports, the fee may be paid in full by the sender, part by him and part by the addressee, or wholly by the addressee—all of which is noted on the outside of the letter; but in cases where the receiving hong has no direct controlling connexion over the delivering agency, a portion of the fee is demanded on acceptance of the letter.

Mr. H. E. McCANN, District Postal Officer at Shanghai, who has supplied the notes for this section, says that since the establishment here of the Chinese Imperial Post little or no change has occurred in the number or operations of the Native concerns, save that recently there has been on foot a movement toward an amalgamation which would reduce the number of hong from 70 to six. This has been dictated by a desire on the part of the various hong to protect their business and to avoid the damaging results of competition; but how it will finally terminate cannot be surmised.

(t.) The most important office changes in the Customs during this period have been the abolition of the river steamer desk and the initiation of the Wharfage Dues desk, both of which occurred on the 1st April 1899. It was then that the Yangtze Regulations of 1898 went into effect and obviated the necessity of a special desk for the river traffic.

The transfer of the collection of Wharfage Dues, from the two Municipal Councils to the Chinese Imperial Customs, was the result of a tripartite agreement entered into by these parties on 20th March 1899, which, after fixing specific rates to be charged on opium, silk, tea, and treasure, provided that all dutiable goods pay 2 per cent. of the amount of the Duty charged, and all Duty-free goods one-tenth of 1 per cent. on the declared value, and also apportioned the returns therefrom among the Councils and the Shanghai Taotai. The Taotai received one-half of the Dues on "Native or domestic" trade, less one half of the total cost of collecting all the Dues; the French Municipal Council, 25 per cent. of the total collection after deduction of the Taotai's share; and the Cosmopolitan Council the remainder—assuming equally with the French body the remaining 50 per cent. of the total cost of collection. After the year elapsed for which this agreement had been made, it was renewed for another year, and has just recently been made permanent, with the reservation, however, that it may be terminated at any time by three months notice from any one of the three parties. Thus far, the results have been considered "exceedingly satisfactory" by the Municipal Council, as the comparative figures before and after the change will readily show. From 1894 through 1898 the Council received from the public as "Dues on Merchandise," and from the Shanghai Taotai in commutation of Native Dues, an average of about Tta 68,000 a year; whereas during the first nine months under the amended rates its share of the Dues amounted to Tta 107,722, and during the last two calendar years to Tta 118,300 and Tta 140,170 respectively. The Dues yielded in all, during the first year of Customs administration, HkTta 208,287, from which HkTta 10,387 must be subtracted for cost of collection; and, judging from the nine months just past, the third year will more than make up for the falling off caused by the depression in 1900 and will return a gross amount in excess of the total for 1899-1900. At the time the agreement was made the Taotai was relieved, during the continuance of the convention, from

remitting to the Municipal Councils the sums formerly paid by him in nominal commutation of Native Dues.

Of necessity, the staff at Shanghai has been reinforced to keep pace with the additional duties incident to the phenomenal expansion of the port's trade. The number of the Foreign In-door staff has increased from 30 in 1891 to 44 in 1901; Foreign Out-door, from 67 to 83; Foreign Coast, from 8 to 24; and the Chinese in the Revenue Department, from 343 to 508; thus raising the total for the Revenue Department from 448 to 659, or 25 per cent. In the Marine Department, the Foreigners numbered 29 in 1891 and 51 in 1901, and the total in this department rose from 133 to 200. Then, with the opening of the Imperial Post Office here, there have been added to the staff 23 Foreigners and 145 Chinese. Consequently, at the beginning of July last the whole number of men in the Revenue, Marine, and Postal Departments at Shanghai was 1,027, against 581, or nearly double what it was 10 years before. And as the staff has been augmented, so has its accommodation been improved. In place of the old building, which stood at the corner of Hankow Road and the Bund, there was erected, between the autumn of 1891 and the early months of 1894, the large brick Custom House which now stands out as the most imposing building on the Bund. Behind this, on the lot running through to the Szechuen Road, an opium godown, the Haikwan Bank, and the post office have also been built. While the Custom House was building, temporary quarters were secured for the office in the building now occupied by the American Trading Company, on Hankow Road, just off the Bund.

(u.) With the signing and ratification of the Shimonoseki Treaty, in the spring of 1895, official permission was given Foreigners to establish manufactories in the open ports of China, which had been greedily awaited and which alone was necessary to give life to the nascent movement for industrial development. Since then Shanghai has seen the initiation of many manufacturing projects, but, unfortunately, has witnessed far from uniformly successful results. Even before the Treaty with Japan was made, a few Foreign establishments were carrying on manufacturing here, in the face of semi-official protests on the part of the Chinese. Such was the case with some of the steam silk filatures which have developed during the decade.

Ten years ago the only concerns were: the Shanghai Filature Company, which went into liquidation in 1898; the Ewo Filature, entirely in the hands of Messrs. JARDINE, MATHESON, & Co.; and the Chang Kee Filature, owned by Chinese, which was kept running and has even been extended. Between 1893 and 1895 two or three Native establishments started; then, the prospects appearing favourable, a rapid increase in the number took place; but for the past three years the total of working bassines has been almost stationary, or has even shown a falling off at times. Some few have extended, others have closed or changed hands several times, until now there are 28 filatures in Shanghai, with between 7,800 and 7,900 bassines, and employing from 18,000 to 20,000 hands. Other filatures in the province are located—one each at Hangchow and Shaoshing, with 240 and 180 bassines respectively; two at Chinkiang, with 330; and three at Soochow, with 630.

One of the largest filatures here shows the following distribution of its hands:—

50 men for superintending, keeping books, etc.	
20 women packing.	
470 " spinning the silk (<i>fileuses</i>).	
235 children beating cocoons (<i>batteuses</i>).	
40 women making waste silk.	
100 " sorting cocoons.	
150 " and children removing cocoon skins.	
40 men as engineers, carpenters, coolies, and watchmen.	
<u>1,105</u>	

The wages of these have risen somewhat during the decade, until now they stand at the following rates:—

Men as overseers and in office	\$15 to \$20 per month.
Packing women	\$0.17 to \$0.38 per day.
<i>Fileuses</i>	\$0.27 to \$0.30 "
<i>Batteuses</i>	\$0.11 to \$0.15 "
Waste women	\$0.13 per day.
Cocoon sorters	\$0.15 to \$0.26 per day.
Removing cocoon skins	Paid by contract.
Engineers and carpenters	About \$12 per month.

This filature has 483 bassines, of which about 470 are usually working; so that about 230 hands may be taken as the average number necessary for every 100 bassines.

The total yearly output of the filatures varies from 8,000 to 12,000 piculs, dependent largely upon the season's crop of cocoons; during the past year it is estimated at about 9,000 piculs. The production of individual filatures varies with the quality of the silk and the capacity of the work-people. Taking, for example, the filature mentioned above, where 470 bassines are running full time and two Sundays a month, the monthly yield is about 75 piculs.

The quality of the silk of the best marks, produced by filatures under European supervision, is said to compare favourably with anything produced in France or Italy, although it is apt to be more mixed, and consequently will not wind so well. The product of the Japan filatures, which are the chief competitors of the Chinese, has not quite the same strength of thread. The course of prices here depends mainly upon the market in Japan, where the production of fine silks is very large.

Occasional good profits tempt the filatures to go on, although several times, at the end of a season, it has been thought that the next year many must close. At first good returns rewarded those in the business, because of the absence of severe competition in buying cocoons in the country; but during the last five years, since many have been attracted to the field by the early gains, the average must be practically no profits on the manufacturing process itself. On the whole, the position of the Chinese filatures is believed to be a precarious one,

and no great development in the industry can be expected with the present ruling price of silk. Cocoons have become very dear, and wages of late range high, although both these are matters which supply and demand can change. Proprietors of the filatures complain of the excessive Likin charges on the cocoons brought down from the interior, which, when added to the Coast Trade and Export Duty, amount to about Fta 60 or more per picul, or nearly 10 per cent. of the total value of the manufactured silk. Yet it is highly desirable for the good of China that these filatures be maintained here, since, if the cocoons purchased in inland places like Wusi were reeled there, the silk would bring only about Fta 375 per picul, instead of from Fta 600 to Fta 750, and the difference, which is largely distributed among the people in the form of wages, would be lost to the country. Any new addition to the cost of putting the finished article on the Foreign markets would certainly curtail consumption, and react mainly to the benefit of the Japanese product.

Turning to the cotton mill industry, its history during these 10 years has been a record of ups and downs—of big profits and big losses; and now, as the period closes, it is difficult to say what the present status of the various mills really is and what future they have before them.

In 1891 only two mills were in operation: one, the Shanghai Cotton Cloth Mill Company (上海機器織布局), which had been organised several years before, but which, through the dilatory policy of its semi-official directors, had not begun the manufacture of yarn and cloth until 1890; and the other, the New Chinese Spinning and Weaving Company (機器紡紗局), organised by a body of Chinese merchants, which began working in 1891. During the first two or three years of the decade these mills paid well, the Shanghai Cotton Cloth Mill Company declaring a dividend of 25 per cent. for 1893. This naturally attracted capital to this field of industrial development. Then, in September 1893, the Cotton Cloth Mill lost its plant by fire, and from that time ceased to exist as an active operating concern; but by reason of the close connexion of its promoters with the Government at Peking, when the company was formed a 10-year monopoly of the manufacture of cotton cloth and yarn had been secured, so that when the mill was burnt down, and (by an amalgamation of the interests of their Excellencies LI HUNG-CHANG and SHENG HSUAN-HUAI) a new company—the Hua Sheng Cheong Cotton Cloth and Yarn Company (華盛廠紡織總局)—was formed, the old organisation had no reason for continuing its existence, except as the owner of the vested monopoly, which had not been transferred with its material property to the Hua Sheng Cheong Company. Through the instrumentality of the two high officials just mentioned, this patent, or monopoly, was made the excuse for the formation of the Chinese Cotton Cloth and Yarn Administration (紡織稽查公所), which from that time forward continued to levy the royalty of Fta 1 per bale on the product of the various mills, and also exercised more or less control over all of them, such as passing their materials and products through the Customs, and carrying on all negotiations with the Government or officials in connexion with their operations generally. The Foreign head of this administration was Mr. A. W. DANFORTH, who had planned and superintended the construction of the Shanghai Cotton Cloth Mill Company's factory as well as the Hua Sheng Cheong Company's new plant, and had been connected with the cotton mill industry since its inception here; while associated with him, as the Chinese director, was Mr. SHENG CHOU-HUAI (盛宙懷).

The Hua Sheng Cheong Mill opened in 1894, with 750 looms and 65,000 spindles, and the same year the Yue Yuen Cotton Yarn Company (裕源紗廠) began work with 25,000 spindles; during the following year two more entered the field—the Ta Sheng Cheong Cotton Cloth and Yarn Company (大統紡紗廠), which has, however, confined its operations to spinning, and the Yue Ching Cotton Yarn Company (裕青紗廠). Up to the time of the Shimonoseki Treaty, signed in April 1895, these mills continued to pay the royalty of Ta 1 per bale to the Chinese Cotton Cloth and Yarn Administration; and they made sufficient profits on the invested capital, in spite of this royalty, to attract a precipitate influx of Foreign capital into the industry directly permission was granted Foreigners to establish manufactories in China (Shimonoseki Treaty, art. vi, sec. 4). Then, when the Foreign mills opened, and put their goods upon the market without paying the royalty to, and without in any way recognising the authority of, the Cloth and Yarn Administration, which was entirely a Chinese affair, the Chinese mills discontinued their payments, and the administration simply lapsed—became dormant.

The precipitancy of the entrance of Foreign capital into the field may be judged from the fact that some of the companies were formed, and the plants built, before their promoters had found out what Duty treatment was to be accorded their products. In one case—that of a Japanese company—a site was purchased, the mill foundations begun, boilers brought to the premises, and machinery ordered from England before the managers awoke to the fact that the Duty imposed by their own country's Treaty with China would make it more profitable to manufacture the yarn in Japan; consequently, they abandoned the idea of erecting a factory here, and transferred to Japan the machinery ordered from England. Still, the far from successful results in the industry since the opening of the Foreign mills cannot be advanced as a harsh criticism on the judgment displayed by the investors; for the simple reason that the unprofitableness of the ventures has resulted chiefly from the enormous rise in the price of raw cotton, for had the ruling price of the four years previous to 1896 continued, or risen slightly, cotton men say that, without doubt, the mills would have paid good dividends.

The following Foreign companies were formed:—

Soy-chee Cotton Spinning Company, Limited (瑞記棉紗廠); capitalised at Ta 1,000,000, in 2,000 shares of Ta 500 each. This mill started in the early part of 1897 with 40,000 spindles. It employs about 1,000 hands. With the exception of 1897, when a dividend of 4 per cent. was declared, there have been no returns on the capital invested.

International Cotton Manufacturing Company, Limited (鴻源紡織公司); capitalised at Ta 1,000,000, in 10,000 shares. It started with 40,000 spindles, which have been only partially kept at work. In 1897 and in 1898 dividends of 3 per cent. were paid. When organised, the management of the company was in the hands of the American Trading Company; but on 1st January 1899 it was transferred to a board of directors elected by the shareholders.

Laou-kung-mow Cotton Spinning and Weaving Company (老公茂紡織局). Like the others, this is a limited-stock company. It has issued 7,158 shares, at Ta 100 each; and started its mill in April 1897. With from 800 to 900 hands, working only in the daytime, it turns out about 1,200 bales of yarn a month. The only dividend declared was one of 4 per cent. for 1898.

Ewo Cotton Spinning and Weaving Company, Limited (怡和紡織局). This company, with a capital of Ta 1,500,000, in Ta 100 shares, began operations in May 1897. Running its 50,000 spindles full time for about half the year, it requires 1,500 hands; and the other half, working only in the daytime, about 900. In 1898 it paid a 4 per cent. dividend.

In addition to these four Foreign companies, in the summer of 1897 the Yah-loong Cotton Spinning Company (協隆紡織局) was constructed out of the Yue Ching Cotton Yarn Company referred to above. By the reconstruction then effected, the new organisation took over the property of the Chinese company, and in the fall of that year started 15,000 spindles running; since then this number has been raised to 20,300. The capital, of Ta 750,000, was only partially subscribed— Ta 571,600; and thus the company began without sufficient funds to cover the initial cost of the plant and afford an adequate working capital, so that from time to time recourse to large overdrafts with its bankers became absolutely necessary. Herein lay the cause of the company's failure, which was marked on the 11th of this month (December 1901) by the sale of its machinery, plant, and supplies at auction, to meet an overdraft of nearly Ta 380,000 with the Russo-Chinese Bank. Although the company had never paid a dividend, its reports showed that at times the mill had been running at a profit, if the heavy interest charges had been absent from its accounts. The sale realised Ta 415,756, of which Ta 380,000 represented the price paid for the property and plant by a syndicate which purposes forming a new company under the improved conditions in the industry.

During the past five years some of the Chinese mills in Shanghai have made small profits, and especially the last 12 months, when they have yielded average dividends of 5 per cent.

Besides these at Shanghai, four other Chinese mills have been opened in the province—one each at Soochow, Hangchow, Ningpo, and Tungchow. Of these, all of which seem to be on a profitable working basis, the best paying one is the Tungchow Mill, which, by reason of its advantageous location near the cotton supply, has been able to declare a 7 per cent. dividend for 1901.

Conjointly with their spinning and weaving, some of the companies have endeavoured to buy seed cotton and gin it themselves. Other ginning companies have started independently, as the demand for local cotton grew, and have, I am told, for some few years netted good profits. Lately, however, many hundreds of hand and foot power gins have been imported into the country, and have absorbed much of the supply which formerly came to the larger gins, so that now some of these have shut down, and the few connected with the mills have run for only short periods during the year.

These, then, are the leading facts, up to the present time, in this first attempt to establish on a large scale a local Chinese industry along Foreign lines, and because of the great sums involved as capital, as well as the interest which has all along attached to this experiment, they are given this amount of space. Whether these mills within the next 10 years will become regular dividend-earners, and pass from their present unsatisfactory condition to one of profitable stability such as their promoters hoped for at the time of their establishment, no one can foretell; but attention can be drawn to the chief causes of their limited success in the past. First among these comes abnormal rise in the price of Chinese raw cotton, for the utilisation of which the mills were primarily built. During the four years previous to the establishment of the Foreign mills Native cotton could be bought at from Ta 12 to Ta 14 per picul; but in 1895 and 1896 it jumped up, owing to the increased demand, and has since continued high, ranging from Ta 14 to Ta 19 per picul. In 1900 the price was especially disastrous, owing to the fact that, synchronously with the poor crops in India and America, the Chinese crop amounted to little more than half its usual yield. Japan—always a buyer here for wadding purposes, and to some extent for milling purposes—was compelled, by the shortages in the other countries just mentioned, to come here for much more of her spinning cotton; and in addition to her purchases, there arose, owing to the same causes, a demand for export to Europe.

Another factor militating against the mills has been the suicidal policy of the cotton men in watering the cotton brought down from the country for sale on the Shanghai market. Too great emphasis cannot be laid upon the results of this disastrous policy, or upon the necessity for the suppression of the practice. Whereas the normal amount of moisture in Native cotton that has not been tampered with should, under the regulation moisture test, not exceed 10 per cent. (in India and America about 7 or 8 per cent.), at Shanghai it has sometimes shown as high as 17 and 18 per cent.; and in one case on record, a bale exported to England, and refused because of the excessive amount of moisture in it, on being returned and tested, revealed 16 per cent., after all the evaporation that must have taken place *en route*. Cotton with so large a percentage of moisture is too wet to pass through the machines. This short-sightedness on the part of the Chinese middlemen, who are supposed to be largely responsible for the watering, has forced the mills to use more Indian cotton, which they can now sometimes lay down in Shanghai, Duty paid, for the same or a less cost per picul than the price of the local product, although almost all of the mill-owners say they would prefer the Native cotton, if it could be secured in its normal condition: it is estimated that during the past year the mills drew half their supply of raw cotton from India. In order to put a check upon this practice, and to protect themselves, certain of the mill-owners and exporters, together with the Cotton Guild, have formed what is known as the "Watered Cotton Association," which maintains a force of about five Indian and eight Chinese inspectors, under the supervision of a Foreigner, at the different barriers around Shanghai, whose duty it is to prevent any watered cotton being brought upon the local market, and to apprehend for punishment offenders against the regulations. After repeated cases have been brought before the Mixed Court, and liberal punishment administered, some improvement begins to manifest itself.

A third drawback has been the tendency toward under-capitalisation mentioned above, which has led to disastrous overdrafts requiring large interest payments. The question of labour was also for some time a grievous one, because of the great demand and the low standard of efficiency. Now, however, this has been largely overcome by training; so that, at present, the mills secure operators for from 22 or 23 to 30 cents a day who perform nearly a half more work than those paid 20 cents during the earlier days of the industry.

Frequent protests have been heard from the leaders of the industry against the treatment of the products of the mills as Foreign manufactured goods, entailing the payment of full Duty on shipments to other Treaty ports in China, and attempts have been made to enlist the Ministers at Peking in a movement to secure the abrogation of the Duty stipulation in the Shimonoseki Treaty. In September 1896 the Chamber of Commerce sent Mr. C. J. DUDGEON, as its representative, to the capital, to urge the abolition of all taxation on the products of this industry; but his mission proved futile. Recently a committee from this body has prepared and submitted a report bearing upon the subject, which draws attention to the fact that the local mills do not receive the fostering treatment accorded those in Japan and India, and maintains that if the industry "were treated in China as it is treated in other countries—if it were permitted to develop, as it would develop under fair treatment—there would arise, in no very long time, a trade of immense proportions, giving remunerative employment to a large number of persons and spreading prosperity throughout the country; but they are satisfied that under the present conditions of taxation there is no prospect of profitable business." Yet, putting aside the merits of the contention, it may be noted that there exists among the mill-owners an opinion, as shown in a minority report from this same committee, that, given a properly capitalised company and a normal price for raw cotton, a mill can be run here at a profit, in spite of the handicap imposed by the Duty treatment of its product. This, however, should not be taken as an approval of the present rate of Duty, which seems to be unreasonable, when compared with the Duties imposed on other products of no more purely local production than the yarn and cotton cloth turned out by these mills.

So much space has been devoted to the industry commanding the most attention, that only brief reference—in no way proportionate to their importance—can be made to the others which have sprung up or have exhibited marked development during the period. New industries include the cigarette and match factories, cotton-seed oil works, and paper mill. Great activity has especially been shown in the shipbuilding and dock business. In 1892 the Shanghai Engineering, Shipbuilding, and Dock Company was formed; but became insolvent, and was bought up by Messrs. S. C. FARNHAM & Co. Then, in March 1901, this company amalgamated with Messrs. BOYD & Co., under the name of Messrs. S. C. FARNHAM, BOYD, & Co., so that now this one company controls all the shipbuilding and docking business of the port. Within the 10 years there have been launched here, besides many tugs and lighters, several large coast and river steamers—the *Changwo*, *Suian*, *Suitai*, *Meiles*, *Meishun*, *Meidah*, *Meiyu*, *Meian*, *Columbia*, *Yinkow*, *Bogatyr*, *Tungting*, *Bureis*, *Zeia*, and *Kiangwo*; and at present this company has a contract with the United States Government to build 10 small gun-boats, for service in the Philippine Islands, which are to be ready for commissioning during the first part,

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of 1903. Certainly Shanghai has reason to be proud of her showing along these lines during the last 10 years.

The last few years of the old century also saw the successful opening of the Shanghai-Woosung Railway, under supervision of the Chinese Government, 20 years after that fatal first attempt to introduce railways into China. Now that these iron roads have become a recognised means of transportation, and the era of extensive projections throughout the Empire seems to be upon us, it is interesting, and amusing, to recall the short history of the forerunner of the Woosung line. It was in June 1876 that a British company completed enough of the narrow-gauge road to Woosung to open the 4½-mile section between Shanghai and the village of Kiangwan, and thus inserted the end of that irresistible "iron wedge of progress" which was to open the whole country to Foreign innovations and conquer the forces of conservatism. Unfortunately, the host had been omitted from the reckoning. In September word came from Sir THOMAS WADE, then H.B.M.'s Minister at Peking, to stop traffic on the line, pending the conclusion of negotiations with the Chinese Government looking to the purchase of the road. The Chinese practically forced the company to sell, without so much as consulting them about their desires in the matter, and would give them no concession as to the road's future other than that it should be kept in operation for one year. By December the line was reopened throughout its whole length of 9½ miles to Woosung Creek. When the stipulated year was up, in November 1877, SHÊN PAO-CHÊN, the Nanking Viceroy (with whom the conditions of the transfer had been arranged, and who had earlier shown great displeasure when the railroad was built without his permission), set to work to dismantle the engines and take up the ties and rails, and packed the whole plant off to Formosa, for setting up there, under Government supervision, in connexion with some mining operations. Through childish carelessness in landing at Anping, the toy for which the Chinese had paid Tta 285,000 was practically destroyed—converted into old iron. Thus ended the first railway venture in China. Twenty years elapsed before the Imperial Edict of 20th October 1896 authorised His Excellency SHÊNG to construct the second Shanghai-Woosung Railway, which is now in operation. Work was commenced on 3rd February 1897, and finished in September 1898, when the road was officially opened for public traffic. Then, in December of that year, the extension from Woosung Creek to Woosung was begun, and when finished, in the following March, made a total length of 14 miles. The necessary funds—for construction, buildings, land, equipment, etc.—were furnished by His Excellency SHÊNG, and amounted, in all, to Tta 810,000. As yet the business of the road consists almost entirely of passenger traffic; but if the proposed extension to Soochow and Nanking is laid, a large freight business will doubtless result. Six trains now run both ways every day, and, as a rule, are fairly well filled.

(v.) As Shanghai is the leading commercial centre of China, so is it the point around which missionary work in the Empire centres. Most of the missions make this their head-quarters, and from here direct their work all over China; and those which have no regular staffs or establishments in Shanghai usually keep representatives or agents here, to transact the business of their missions and superintend the forwarding of supplies.

To economise space, the statistical information received from members of the different missions has been tabulated as follows:—

NAME OF MISSION.	BY WHOM MAINTAINED.	FOREIGN MISSIONARIES.		CONVERTS.	NATIVE PREACHERS.	NATIVE TEACHERS.	CHURCHES AND CHAPELS.	SCHOOLS.
		Men.	Women.					
American Southern Baptist...	Southern Baptists in United States of America.	2	4	100	5	6	5	6
" Church Mission....	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)
" Presbyterian.....	United States Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions.	6	10	250	6	23	3	7
Church Missionary Society...	Church Missionary Society of Great Britain.	5	7	(?)	(?)	(?)	3	6
London Mission.....	Congregational churches of Great Britain, Ireland, and Australia, and a number of Scotch Presbyterians.	3	2	504	13	9	13	12
Seventh Day Baptist.....	Seventh Day Baptist Missionary Society of America.	2	5	58	1	9	2	6
Southern Methodist.....	Methodist Episcopal Church (South) of United States of America.	12	30	466	15	49	15	25
Women's Union Mission.....	Women's Union Missionary Society of America.	...	7	120	6	6	1	4
Foreign Christian.....	Foreign Christian Missionary Society of Cincinnati, Ohio.	3	3	130	2	4	2	1

Besides these regular establishments, there are here the Procure des Lazaristes, Procure des Missions Belges, Procure des Missions Étrangères, and the head-quarters and receiving home of the China Inland Mission, which last carries on no active work among the Natives in Shanghai and the immediate vicinity.

As full information as was desired, in regard to the progress of the past 10 years, has not been obtained from all of the missions; but what has been received will be included, with the explanatory note that the field is only partially covered.

By the Southern Baptist Mission two schools—one for boys and one for girls—have been opened, and are managed, on a self-supporting basis, by a committee of Native and Foreign missionaries appointed by the association, composed of delegates from the six Baptist churches in Central China (Quinsan, Soochow, Chinkiang, Yangchow, and two in Shanghai). A new church near the Rifle Butts has been organised by the mission.

The American Church Mission has, during the 10 years, enlarged its educational work by the erection of the fine new buildings for St. John's College. They cost \$25,000, gold, for erection and equipment, and will accommodate 150 students; they were inaugurated in February 1895. Recently a branch of the mission has been opened at Wusi (無錫), where two English schools have already been started.

The London Mission, which is the oldest mission in Shanghai, having been founded by Dr. MEDHURST in 1843, has during the decade established churches in Changshu (常熟), Naewae (南匯), Kahzae (嘉善), Binghu (平湖), and in many country towns. Since 1891 a

boarding-school has been opened to provide an efficient Western education for Chinese boys, and it is soon to be rebuilt, as a boarding and high school, on land acquired for that purpose in the Li Hongkew district. The death of Dr. MUIRHEAD, in 1900, after 53 years work and residence in Shanghai, deprived the mission of its well-known leader.

The Southern Methodist Mission has organised one new church and opened two or three chapels, as well as five new schools. One of these, the McTiere School, opened here in 1891, was intended to be a high-grade school for Chinese girls, and at that time marked a new departure in this section of the country. Dr. YOUNG J. ALLEN and Miss LAURA A. HAYGOOD were the promoters of the scheme, which has succeeded to a degree far beyond what they could have dared to hope. The first building put up for its accommodation proved too small in a few years, and now a large annex, which was finished two years ago, is overflowing. The second of the mission's two more important schools was opened in 1899 at Sungkiang. During the troubles it had to be closed temporarily; but for only a short time, as in the autumn of that year, at the request of the District Magistrate, work was resumed under his protection—and patronage, it might almost be said, inasmuch as he showed his goodwill by sending his two grandsons to the school.

In answer to the query as to the effect of the troubles of 1900 upon the work of the different missions, it is said that during the three critical months attendance at schools and churches fell off considerably. In the case of some of the schools quite a half of the number of pupils remained away; but in the churches the falling off was usually not so great, and, moreover, consisted almost entirely of non-Christians. In Shanghai, however, the effect was very slight, in comparison with the troubles elsewhere and with the disturbed conditions in country districts, where considerable uncertainty prevailed. "In Kiating-hsien (嘉定縣) the salt smugglers, always in evidence there, threatened open persecution, and posted exhortations on city walls and town buildings to kill the Native Christians. Vigorous action on the part of the officials prevented trouble. A small riot threatened at Changshu (常熟), but was quickly and quietly suppressed. Trouble on the part of a few 'ne'er-do-weels' at Kahsae was prevented by a timely proclamation from the Magistrate. Speaking generally, there was active hostility on the part of the gangs of rowdies, salt smugglers, and the like, who abound on the inland waters of this country district, and a general desire on the part of the local officials to keep the peace as long as possible. This state of affairs lasted well into 1901, but has since entirely disappeared." An extraordinarily keen desire, on the part of the officials and populace alike, to obtain some of the new "Western learning" is said to be the most noticeable after-effect in this province of the Boxer disturbances.

So many institutions are maintained by, and such a large number of missionaries are at work under the direction of, the Roman Catholic mission, that no general statement will be of much value in conveying a definite idea of its progress and present state; consequently the following detailed excerpt is quoted from the "Report of the Kiangnan Catholic Mission" for the year ending 1st July 1901:—

"Of the regular clergy there are the vicar apostolic—Bishop PARIS, S.J.,—138 Jesuit missionaries (of whom 23 are Natives), 16 theological students, and 22 coadjutor brothers;

of the secular clergy there are 30 priests, 17 theological students, 17 following a preparatory course, and 22 Latin students—these latter are all Natives, the priests having completed their theological studies and the others undergoing training for the ministry. Beside the clerical element, the mission is helped in its work by several religious congregations: the Little Marist Brothers (29), in charge of St. Xavier's College, Hongkew; trained Native teachers (30); Carmelite nuns (32); Helpers of the Souls in Purgatory (81), conducting the orphanage in Sicawei and convents in the French Concession and in Hongkew; Sisters of Charity (29); and a Native congregation of Presentation nuns (134), occupying in the interior 23 stations throughout Kiangsu and 18 in Anhwei."

The Roman Catholic Church in the Kiangnan Mission is entrusted to the Jesuit fathers, and is maintained at their expense. To carry on its extensive work the mission receives annual grants from the Society for the Propagation of the Faith and the Society of the Holy Childhood, and contributions from church members in all countries, especially in France, Holland, and the United States. Part of these moneys has been invested in the purchase of property, the revenues from which furnish but a small portion of the funds necessary for the work undertaken.

The mission maintains two observatories, a museum of natural history, two large orphanages, a theological seminary for the training of Foreign and Native clergy, a college at Sicawei, boarding-schools for Foreign and Native children, several foundling asylums, a deaf and dumb institute, homes for the aged, and dispensaries. The elementary schools in the interior number 975, with 18,000 pupils in attendance, most of whom contribute little or nothing toward the expense of their education. Within the last 10 years a new astronomical observatory has been erected at the Hills (18 miles south-west of Shanghai); Père CHEVALIER, the well-known author of the map of the Upper Yangtze, is the director, and he has lately been awarded a prize by the French Academy for his valuable services to astronomical and geographical science. Two large churches have also been constructed, one at Tang-mu-chiao, in Pootung, and the other—Mu-you-tang, or "Our Lady's Shrine"—in the Haimen Peninsula. At Shanghai and in its immediate vicinity the problem of a self-supporting church has been satisfactorily solved.

The crisis in the North, in 1900, left no permanent effect upon the work of the Kiangnan missionaries. On the outskirts, especially near the Kiangsi, Hupeh, Honan, and Shantung provinces, a few churches have been destroyed and the converts dispersed.

The annexed comparative statement exhibits the progress made by this mission within the last 10 years:—

	1892.	1901.
Foreign missionaries	155	191
Churches and chapels	722	1,046
Native converts	104,073	127,839
Inquirers	5,241	52,000
Schools	633	975
Pupils attending the schools	10,917	18,057

Working along similar lines with the missions here are the four societies which distribute secular and religious literature among the Chinese and some of the neighbouring peoples, and which make Shanghai the directing centre of their—in some cases—very extended fields.

The Society for the Diffusion of General and Christian Knowledge among the Chinese, which was founded here in 1887, for the purpose of publishing and circulating literature—especially periodical literature—based on Christian principles throughout China and wherever Chinese are found, has during the past year, as appears from its report, published 48,950 copies of new books, which included 31,000 copies of the "Review of the Times" and the "Chinese Missionary Review," and at present, as is always the case, has several new books in the press and in course of preparation. But this hasty summary really gives but a glance at the work of this society, in which many of Shanghai's leading men have shown the keenest interest: recourse must be had to its annual reports to gain an adequate idea of its work.

In this same field the Chinese Tract Society has now been at work for 23 years. Its report gives the number of reprints and copies of new books published during this last year as 377,710, and of those distributed from the depository as 332,780; these included the issues of the monthly periodicals "The Child's Paper" and the "Chinese Illustrated News." With few exceptions, its published books deal only with religious subjects.

The work of the British and Foreign Bible Society in China, as appears from the notes kindly supplied by its agent here, "commenced with the publication of Dr. MORRISON'S translation of the New Testament in 1814. It now publishes translations and versions of the scriptures in classical (*wén-lí*) Chinese, mandarin, and 12 vernaculars or dialects, in Thibetan, Kalmuc, and Mongolian; and it has printed and circulated amongst the Chinese over 9,324,400 copies of the whole or of parts of God's Word. The society issued, from 1892 to 1901 inclusive, 54,795 bibles, 210,841 testaments, and 5,086,679 portions, making a total of 5,334,315 books. The highest issues in any one year were in 1899, when the total was 1,035,303. Entirely through the Boxer uprising the work has diminished more than one-half. In 1892 the staff was eight Europeans and 139 Native workers; in 1901 there were 14 Europeans and 250 Native workers. But the Native staff has been greatly reduced through the recent disturbances—in 1899 the colporteurs numbered 359, and bible-women 43. The society's work is now carried on in Manchuria, in 16 out of the 18 provinces of China proper, in Mongolia, along the borders of Thibet, in Hongkong, Hainan, and Formosa."

The following notes in regard to the work of the China agency of the American Bible Society have also been prepared for this Report by the Society's resident agent:—

"During the 10 years (1892-1901) the China agency of the American Bible Society issued 51,135 bibles, 209,286 testaments, and 4,100,950 scripture portions, or a total of 4,361,371 volumes. The society has no printing plant in China, and all the manufacture was done by contract at Shanghai, Foochow, Kinkiang, Kiating, and Yokohama. This agency publishes only scriptures in the Chinese language; all others are supplied from New York or are purchased from other bible societies. The circulation has been 24,450 bibles, 158,490 testaments, and 3,374,407 scripture portions, or a total of 3,557,347 books. Of this number,

180,444 were given away (the greater number at the triennial examinations, to the students); the rest were sold. Scriptures are never sold at a profit, the cheaper editions being sold at from one-third to one-fourth the actual cost of manufacture. The total circulation from the time the American Bible Society began operations in China, more than 40 years ago, is—

"BIBLES.	TESTAMENTS.	PORTIONS.	TOTAL.
"43,045	337,461	7,108,291	7,488,797

"It will be observed that the circulation during the past 10 years is just about equal to that of the entire 30 years previous—in other words, one-half of all the scriptures circulated in China by the American Bible Society were distributed in the past 10 years. We have sold scriptures in no less than 42 different languages and dialects, namely, 16 Chinese dialects, 10 other Asiatic languages, and 16 European languages. There was a steady increase in the circulation from 1893 to 1899. During the first half of 1900 we sold more books than during any previous six months in the history of the agency. In July of that year our work was practically broken up outside of Shanghai; it was not fully resumed before the end of 1901. Sixteen of our Native colporteurs were killed by the Boxers and the families of most of them were exterminated. Before the Boxer outbreak we had workers in 16 of the 18 provinces; the work in every province except one was abandoned on account of the troubles of 1900. At the close of 1901 we had all of our Foreign staff back at their stations, but our Native staff was only 60 per cent. of what it was the previous year. Our work at the end of the year was confined to 10 provinces. There is an unparalleled demand for bibles and testaments from all over the Empire. Our sales for the short time we were at work last year were larger than ever before; it is impossible for us to fill the orders we have received since the beginning of the year. The call for bibles from non-Christians has not been satisfactorily accounted for."

Before closing this section, a note on the Young Men's Christian Association should be included. For more than 20 years such an association led an intermittent existence in Shanghai, until, in response to a request from Shanghai, a general secretary arrived in 1897. In 1899 arrangements were made whereby both Foreign and Native branches were soon after organised. The annual report shows that in 1901 there was a total membership of 962 men, namely, 679 Chinese, 203 Europeans and Americans, and 80 Japanese; that 234 men were enrolled in the educational classes and 159 in the bible classes of the association; and that over \$15,000 was provided in Shanghai during 1901, from various sources, for this work.

(w.) What was said in general description of *hui-kuan* in the last Decennial Reports applies to the Shanghai organisations as well, so that there is now no excuse for more than referring to the peculiarly local characteristics and adding a list of the different guilds.

There are the two kinds of guilds existing here—the *hui-kuan*, or provincial guilds (會館), and the *kung-so* (公所), or traders and artisans guilds. The *hui-kuan*, besides their usual duties in protecting and advancing the interests of members trading or residing

in Shanghai, assist fellow-provincials who do not belong to the organisations in various ways—in other words, they virtually serve as a central committee for all the men from the locality which they represent. For instance, they care for shipwrecked sailors; they provide the poorer members of their community with coffins for deceased relatives at a very greatly reduced price; and almost all of them, in addition to mortuaries for storing the bodies of deceased wealthy members, have a public cemetery for interring fellow-provincials whose families are unable to carry the coffins back to their native places. It was this very feature of the functions of one of the *hui-kuan*—the Ningpo Guild—which produced the troublesome riots mentioned in section (a.) of this Report, and revealed to the Foreigners in Shanghai the real power of these organisations and their ability to affect the most vital interests of the port. It will be recalled that all Ningpo men in the two Settlements were urged to stop work, and that nearly a complete suspension of trade resulted for a few days. To quote here two of the circulars issued by the guild during the troubles incident to the joss house affair will perhaps serve most effectively to reveal the inner workings of a guild at critical moments. They run as follows:—

"With reference to our affair concerning our guild-house premises, the Shanghai Taotai and the French Consul General, in company with several Foreign merchants, are trying, so it is stated, to arrange a settlement. Now, it is necessary that all who belong to our community should act peaceably at present, and quietly await the results of the above conference. By no means congregate in crowds and stir up trouble on the impulse of your united indignation, for you will only be making matters worse, and perhaps suffer injuries to no avail. Sunday, 17th July."

"Our prefectural guild-house, which has been occupied solely with charitable objects for a hundred years, has now been disturbed by the unreasonable actions of the French. Without waiting for a final settlement with the Taotai, nor having received the consent of our gentry and guild-house committee, the French have dared to pull down the walls surrounding our cemetery, and have shot down and killed many people; the wrong therefore lay with the aggressors. Hence it was that yesterday we issued a circular calling upon you, our fellow-provincials, to stop temporarily from doing all business and quietly await a settlement of our affair, and exhorting you by no means to assemble in crowds and create disturbances; for reason and right are on our side, and you must not hold any mistaken ideas on the matter. We now hear that His Excellency the High Commissioner of the Southern Ports (Viceroy Liu of Nanking) has appointed His Excellency NIEH CH'Y-KUEI, Provincial Treasurer of Lower Kiangsu, and SHEN TUN-HO, Expectant Taotai—while His Excellency the Governor at Soochow has appointed Lo Taotai,—to come to Shanghai to reason on the matter with the French. It is therefore necessary to issue this circular for general information. That you all, whether merchants or artisans, have temporarily stopped business and trade is a proof of your united indignation at the treatment our cemetery has received; but we now exhort you to wait until His Excellency the Provincial Treasurer arrives and meets the French, and then see how matters stand, before doing anything else. 18th July 1898."

Following is a list of the *hui-kuan* in Shanghai:—

Shang-ch'uan Hui-kuan (商船會館)	For the natives of Shanghai trading with Tientsin and Newchwang.
Chiang-hai (江西會館)	For the natives of Kiangsi.
Ning-po (甯波會館)	For the natives of Ningpo prefecture.
Chieh-po-feng (揭陽豐會館)	For the natives of Chieh-yang, Poning, and Feng-shun districts, in Kwangtung.
Ch'uan-chang (泉漳會館)	For the natives of Ch'uan-chou and Chang-chou prefectures, in Fuhkien.
Ch'ao-hui (潮惠會館)	For the natives of Ch'ao-chou (Swatow) and Hui-chou prefectures, in Kwangtung.
Ch'ao-chou (潮州會館)	For the natives of Ch'ao-chou prefecture, in Fuhkien.
Hui-chou (徽州會館)	For the natives of Anhwei.
Shu-shang (蜀商會館)	For the natives of Szechwan.
Shao-hsing (紹興會館)	For the natives of Shao-hsing prefecture, in Chehkiang.
Su-chou (蘇州會館)	For the natives of Soochow prefecture.
Kuang-chao Kung-so (廣肇公所)	For the natives of Canton.
Ching-chiang Hui-kuan (京江會館)	For the natives of Chinkiang prefecture.
Chiang-ning Kung-so (江甯公所)	For the natives of Nanking.
San-shan Hui-kuan (三山會館)	For the natives of Fuhkien.
Shan-hsi (山西會館)	For the natives of Shansi.
Ch'ien-chiang (錢江會館)	For the natives of Hangchow prefecture.

Of these, the Ningpo Guild is by far the most powerful and influential, because of the large number of Ningpo men residing in Shanghai; and second in rank would probably come the Hui-chou (or Anhwei) Hui-kuan.

The *kung-so*, or trade guilds, include not only merchants and traders organisations, but also associations of craftsmen and artisans, by which these men of the different trades protect themselves and their work, much in the same way that labour unions regulate matters in Western countries. Fixing prices and compelling obedience to certain set rules for the trade are the chief concern of the mercantile guilds, and in their latter function they often exercise severe punitive power when disciplining offending members. They maintain supreme control of their special trades by compelling any person wishing to engage in business or open a shop to join the guild—paying the required entrance fee and (here the benefits of charter membership manifest themselves) giving a feast to the fellow-traders. Reduction of fixed prices or violation of rules usually entails heavy fines. Many of the larger guilds have their

own buildings, while some have to meet in the various temples—such as the Temple of the City God (城隍廟), where 18 different guilds hold yearly meetings. The principal trade guilds in this locality are:—

NAME		FOR WHAT TRADE
Ssu-yeh Kung-so.....	絲業公所	Raw silk.
Ch'ien-chuang "	錢莊公所	Exchange shop.
Tou-mai "	豆麥公所	Bean and wheat.
Hua-t'ang "	花糖公所	Cotton and sugar.
Yang-pu "	洋布公所	Foreign piece goods.
Pu-yeh "	布業公所	Native cloth.
Hsieh-yeh "	鞋業公所	Boot and shoe.
Ch'ien-yeh "	錢業公所	Banking.
Mu-hang "	木行公所	Timber.
Mei-t'an "	煤炭公所	Coal and charcoal.
Mi-yeh "	米業公所	Rice.
Chiang-yüan "	醬園公所	Soy.
Ch'a-yeh "	茶業公所	Tea.
Ch'iu-yeh "	裘業公所	Furrier.
Tien-yeh "	典業公所	Pawn shop.
Wu-mu "	烏木公所	Black-wood.
Chih-yeh "	紙業公所	Paper.
Yü-ch'i "	玉器公所	Jadestone.
Yang-yao "	洋藥公所	Opium.
Yen-yeh "	煙業公所	Tobacco.
Chiu-yeh "	酒業公所	Samsu.
Ch'ien-chiang "	錢江公所	Hangchow silk.
Ch'ou-yeh "	綢業公所	Silk piece goods.
Ch'eng-yung "	整容公所	Hair-dressing.
Li-yüan "	梨園公所	Theatricals.

(x.) The number of Kiangsu men who have risen to high official positions within the past 10 years is 20:—

CHANG LIEN-KUEI (張聯桂), formerly Governor of Kwangsi.
LIAO SHOU-FENG (廖壽豐), formerly Governor of Chehkiang.
JEN TAO-JUNG (任道鎔), Governor of Chehkiang.
WU YIN-SUN (吳引蓀), Judge at Canton.
HSÜ CHIH-HSIANG (徐致祥), formerly Literary Examiner for Anhwei.
CHIANG PIAO (江樸), formerly Literary Examiner for Hunan.
WANG TUNG-YÜ (王同愈), formerly Literary Examiner for Hupeh.
LU PAO-CHUNG (陸寶忠), Literary Examiner for Peking prefecture.
CH'IN SHOU-CHANG (秦綬章), Literary Examiner for Fukien.
WU YU-SHENG (吳郁生), Literary Examiner for Szechwan.
HSÜ PU (徐郵), *chuang-yüan* and Assistant Grand Secretary.

LU JUN-HSIANG (陸潤庠), *chuang-yüan* and Vice-President of the Board of Ceremonies; lately he has been made Vice-President of the Board of Works.
WU HUNG-CHIA (吳鴻甲), Censor in the Shensi Department of the Tu Ch'a Yuan.
WU PAO-LING (吳保齡), Censor in the Shansi Department of the Tu Ch'a Yuan.
HSÜ SHIH-CHIA (徐士佳), Censor in the Chehkiang Department of the Tu Ch'a Yuan.
LIAO SHOU-HENG (廖壽恒), *chuang-yüan*; formerly a Grand Secretary. (Deceased.)
SUNG CH'ENG-HSIANG (宋承庠), a Censor.
YÜN TSU-HSI (傅祖翼), formerly Governor of Chehkiang.
SHENG HSÜAN-HUAI (盛宣懷), Vice-Director of the Imperial Clan Court.
CHANG CH'EN (張謇), new *chuang-yüan*.

There have been no *hsiu-ts'ai* or *chü-jén* who have been recommended for promotion and attained the rank of Viceroy, Governor, Provincial Treasurer, or Judge.

(y.) and (z.).

H. ELGAR HOBSON,
Commissioner of Customs.

CUSTOM HOUSE,
SHANGHAI, 31st December 1901.
15th December 1902.

APPENDIX.

I.—REGISTERED NATIVE POSTAL HONGS.

Registered No.	DESIGNATION OF HONG.	To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
1	Hsieh Hsing Ch'ang Chi.....	協興昌記 Peking..... Tientsin..... Chefoo..... Newchwang..... Canton..... Swatow..... Amoy.....	北京 天津 烟台 鎮江 寧波 汕頭 廈門	By steamer " " " " " " " " " " " "
2	Hsieh Hsing Ch'ang.....	協興昌 Tungchow..... Kiangyin..... Chinkiang..... Tai-hsing..... Nanking..... Wuhu..... Tatung..... Anking..... Kiukiang..... Hankow.....	通州 陰江 鎮江 泰興 南京 蕪湖 大通 安慶 九江 漢口	Daily "
3	Hsieh Hsing.....	協興 Wenchow..... Ningpo..... Shaoching..... Soochow..... Hangchow..... Kashing..... Hu-chou.....	溫州 寧波 紹興 蘇州 杭州 嘉興 湖州	Thrice a month Daily " " " " " " " " " "
4	Ch'uan T'ai Hsia.....	全泰裕 Chinkiang..... Yangchow..... Nanking..... Wuhu..... Tatung..... Anking..... Kiukiang..... Kiangsi..... Wusueh..... Hankow.....	鎮江 揚州 南京 蕪湖 大通 安慶 九江 漢口 武穴	Daily " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "

Registered No.	DESIGNATION OF HONG.	To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
5	Tai Ku Chin.....	太古 Tungchow..... Chinkiang..... Yangchow..... Nanking..... Wuhu..... Tatung..... Anking..... Kiukiang..... Hankow..... Kiangsi.....	通州 鎮江 揚州 南京 蕪湖 大通 安慶 九江 漢口 西	Daily " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "
6	Cheng Ta.....	正大 Ningpo..... Shaoching..... Wenchow..... Foochow..... Hangchow..... Soochow..... Hu-chou..... Kashing.....	寧波 紹興 溫州 福州 杭州 嘉興 湖州	Daily " " By steamer " " Daily " " " " " "
7	Shen Ch'ang Sheng.....	森昌盛 Tientsin..... Peking..... Chefoo..... Newchwang.....	天津 北京 烟台 鎮江	By steamer " " " " " "
8	Shen Ch'ang.....	森昌 Tungchow..... Kiangyin..... Chinkiang..... Yangchow..... Nanking..... Wuhu..... Tatung..... Anking..... Kiukiang..... Hankow..... Ichang..... Yochow.....	通州 陰江 鎮江 揚州 南京 蕪湖 大通 安慶 九江 漢口 宜昌 岳州	Daily "
9	Yung Ho Yü.....	永和裕 Ningpo..... Chinhai..... Tzu-ch'i..... Feng-hua..... Tinghai..... Shaoching..... Yü-yao..... Shang-yü..... Hsin-ts'ang..... Cheng-hsien..... Foochow..... Wenchow.....	寧波 鎮江 蘇州 嘉定 上海 杭州 嘉興 湖州 紹興 溫州	Daily " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " By steamer " "

Registered No.	DESIGNATION OF HONG.	To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
10	Yung Ho.....	永和 Hangchow..... Hu-chou..... Kashing..... Hsia-shih..... Nanking..... Soochow..... Sunghiang.....	Daily " " " " " "	40 cash. " " " " " "
11	Fu Hsing K'ang.....	福興康 Canton..... Swatow..... Amoy..... Tainan..... T'ai-pu..... Ch'ian-chou..... Changchow.....	By steamer " " " " " "	50 cash. " " " " " "
12	Ch'uan Ch'ang Jen.....	全昌仁 Chinkiang..... Yangchow..... Nanking..... Wuhu..... Tatung..... Anking..... Kiukiang..... Kiangsi..... Hankow..... Hunan..... Amoy..... Swatow..... Canton..... Soochow..... Hangchow.....	Daily " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "	40 cash. " " " " " " " " 40 cash. " 50 cash. " " " " "
13	Ho T'ai.....	和泰 Ningpo..... Foochow..... Canton..... Swatow..... Amoy..... Wenchow.....	Daily By steamer " " " "	40 cash. 50 cash. " " " "
14	Yung Li.....	永利 Ningpo..... Shaoching..... Wenchow..... Hangchow..... Soochow..... Hu-chou..... Kashing.....	Daily " " " " " "	40 cash. " " " " " "
15	Yung I Ch'ang.....	永義和 Ningpo..... Chinhai..... Tzu-ch'i..... Tinghai.....	Daily " " "	40 cash. " " "

Registered No.	DESIGNATION OF HONG.	To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
15	Yung I Ch'ang—continued.	Wenchow..... Taichow..... Haimén..... Changshu..... Mei-li..... T'ai-ts'ung..... Sha-t'ou..... Kiating..... Lin-ho.....	By steamer Daily " " " " " " "	50 cash. " " " " " " "
16	Hsieh T'ai.....	協太 Ningpo..... Chinhai..... Tinghai..... Taichow..... Haimén..... Shih-p'u..... Tzu-ch'i..... Ch'ui-chiao..... Shan-nan..... Wenchow..... Foochow.....	Daily " " " " " " " " " " " "	" " " " " " " " " " " "
17	Ch'uan Sheng.....	全盛 Ningpo..... Tzu-ch'i..... Feng-hua..... Chinhai..... Yü-yao..... Shaoching..... Wenchow..... Foochow.....	By steamer Daily " " " " " " "	40 cash. " " " " " " 60 cash. "
18	Cheng Ta Yuen.....	政大源 Tungchow..... Chinkiang..... Yangchow..... Nanking..... Wuhu..... Tatung..... Anking..... Kiukiang..... Wusueh..... Kiangsi..... Hankow..... Hupei.....	Daily " " " " " " " " " " " "	40 cash. " " " " " " " " " " "
19	Ch'uan T'ai Cheng.....	全泰成 Canton..... Swatow..... Kwangsi..... Ch'uo-chou..... Hongkong..... Amoy..... Wuchow..... Ch'iu-chou.....	By steamer " " " " " " "	50 cash. " " " 50 cash. " "

Registered No.	Designation of Hong.	To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
20	Ch'uan T'ai Sheng.....	全泰盛 Tientsin..... 天津 Peking..... 烟台 Chefoo..... 牛莊 Newchwang.....	By steamer " " " " " "	60 cash. " " " " " "
21	T'ien Shun.....	德順 Ningpo..... 甯波 Chinhai..... 鎮海 Tinghai..... 定海 Tsu-ch'i..... 紹興 Wenchow..... 溫州 Foochow..... 福州 Hangchow..... 杭州 Shaoching..... 紹興 Kashang..... 嘉興	Daily " " " " " " By steamer " " Daily. " " " "	40 cash. " " " " " " 50 cash. " " " " " " " "
22	Fu Hsing Jun.....	福興潤 Peking..... 北京 Tientsin..... 天津 Chefoo..... 烟台 Newchwang..... 牛莊	By steamer " " " " " "	60 cash. " " " " " "
23	Fu Jun.....	福潤 Ningpo..... 甯波 Wenchow..... 溫州 Foochow..... 福州 Shaoching..... 紹興 Soochow..... 蘇州 Hangchow..... 杭州 Hu-chow..... 湖州 Kashang..... 嘉興	Daily By steamer " " Daily. " " " " " " " "	40 cash. 50 cash. " " " " " " " " " " " "
24	Fu Hsing Jun.....	福興潤 Tungchow..... 通州 Chinkiang..... 鎮江 Yangchow..... 揚州 Nanking..... 南京 Wuhu..... 蕪湖 Tatung..... 太倉 Anking..... 安慶 Kiukiang..... 九江 Hankow..... 漢口 Kiangyin..... 陰江	40 cash. " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "
25	Leo Fu Hsing Lung Chi.....	老福興隆記 Tientsin..... 天津 Peking..... 烟台 Chefoo..... 牛莊 Newchwang.....	By steamer " " " " " "	70 cash. " " 60 cash. 70 cash.
26	Leo Fu Hsing.....	老福興 Hankow..... 漢口 Kiukiang..... 九江 Anking..... 安慶 Tatung..... 太倉 Wuhu..... 蕪湖	40 cash. " " " " " " " "

Registered No.	Designation of Hong.	To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
26	Leo Fu Hsing—continued.	Nanking..... 南京 Chinkiang..... 鎮江 Kiangyin..... 陰江 Tungchow..... 通州	40 cash. " " " " " "
27	Ch'ien Ch'ang.....	乾昌 Chinkiang..... 鎮江 Kiukiang..... 九江 Wuhu..... 蕪湖 Anking..... 安慶 Tatung..... 太倉 Hupeh..... 漢口 Hankow..... 漢口 Nanking..... 南京	By steamer " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "	40 cash. " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "
28	Ch'ien Ch'ang Jen.....	乾昌仁 Foochow..... 福州 Fu-ning..... 甯波 Canton..... 汕頭 Swatow..... 潮州 Ch'ao-chou..... 廈門 Amoy..... 廈門	By steamer " " " " " " " " " " " "	40 cash. " " " " " " " " " " " "
29	Ch'uan T'ai Sheng.....	全泰盛 Chinkiang..... 鎮江 Tungchow..... 通州 Nanking..... 南京 Wuhu..... 蕪湖 Tatung..... 太倉 Anking..... 安慶 Kiukiang..... 九江 Hankow..... 漢口	Daily " " " " " " " " " " " " " "	40 cash. " " " " " " " " " " " " " "
30	Yü Hsing Fu.....	裕興福 Foochow..... 福州 Canton..... 汕頭 Amoy..... 廈門 Swatow..... 潮州 Peking..... 北京 Tientsin..... 天津 Newchwang..... 牛莊 Chefoo..... 烟台 Chinkiang..... 鎮江 Tungchow..... 通州 Nanking..... 南京 Wuhu..... 蕪湖 Tatung..... 太倉 Kiukiang..... 九江 Hankow..... 漢口	By steamer "	50 cash. " " " " 40 cash. 60 cash. "
31	Cheng Ho Hsieh Chi.....	正和協記 Chinkiang..... 鎮江 Yangchow..... 揚州 Nanking..... 南京 Wuhu..... 蕪湖 Tatung..... 太倉	Daily " " " " " " " "	40 cash. " " " " " " " "

Registered No.	DESIGNATION OF HONG.	To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
31	Chéng Ho Hsieh Chi—cont.	Anking..... Kiukiang..... Hankow..... Tientsin..... Peking..... Swatow..... Canton..... Amoy.....	Daily " By steamer " " " "	40 cash. " 60 cash. " 50 cash. " "
32	I Ta.....	Chinkiang..... Nanking..... Wuhu..... Anking..... Tatang..... Kiukiang..... Hankow.....	Daily " " " " "	40 cash. " " " " "
33	Jén Ch'ung Chéng.....	Swatow..... Amoy..... Foochow..... Wenchow..... Ningpo..... Shaoshing.....	By steamer " " Daily "	50 cash. " " 40 cash. "
34	Yü Hsing Ch'ang.....	Ningpo..... Chinhal..... Tinghai..... Shaoshing..... Foochow..... Tzu-chi.....	Daily " " By steamer "	40 cash. " " 50 cash. 40 cash.
35	Mao Ch'ang.....	Canton..... Swatow..... Amoy..... Changchow.....	By steamer " " "	50 cash. " " "
36	Ch'üan T'ai Hsieh.....	Swatow..... Amoy..... Canton.....	By steamer " "	50 cash. " "
37	Fu Ho Ch'ang.....	Canton..... Amoy..... Swatow.....	By steamer " "	50 cash. " "
38	T'ai Ku Shéng.....	Foochow..... Canton..... Amoy..... Swatow.....	By steamer " " "	50 cash. " " 40 cash.

Registered No.	DESIGNATION OF HONG.	To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
39	Lao I Fêng.....	Canton..... Swatow..... Amoy..... Foochow.....	By steamer " " "	50 cash. " " "
40	Ho Fa Shun.....	Canton..... Swatow..... Amoy..... Foochow.....	By steamer " " "	50 cash. " " "
41	Sung Hsing Kung.....	Amoy..... Swatow.....	By steamer "	60 cash. 50 cash.
42	Hu Wan Ch'ang.....	Chinkiang..... Nanking..... Wuhu..... Tatang..... Anking..... Kiukiang..... Hankow..... Honan..... Changsha..... Hsiang-t'an..... Li-ling..... I-yang..... Szechwan..... K'uei-kuan..... Chungking..... Wan-hsien..... Ch'eng-tu.....	Daily " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "	40 cash. " " " " " 100 cash. " " " " 200 cash. " " " "
43	Yung I T'ai.....	Ningpo..... Shaoshing..... Chinhal..... Tinghai..... Wenchow..... Foochow..... Soochow..... Hangchow.....	Daily " " By steamer Daily "	50 cash. " " 100 cash. 50 cash. 60 cash.
44	Ch'üan Ch'ang Hsiang.....	Chinkiang..... Nanking..... Wuhu..... Tatang..... Anking..... Kiukiang..... Hankow..... Tungchow..... Kiangyin.....	Daily " " " " " " "	40 cash. " " " " " " "

Registered No.	Designation of Hong.	To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
45	Sung Hsing Kung Fu Chi..... 松興公福記	Tungchow..... 州 Kiangyin..... 江陰 Chinkiang..... 鎮江 Yangchow..... 揚州 Nanking..... 南京 Wuhu..... 蕪湖 Tatung..... 太倉 Anking..... 安慶 Kiukiang..... 九江 Kiangsi..... 江西 Hankow..... 漢口 Hupei..... 湖北 Canton..... 廣州 Ningpo..... 寧波 Chinhai..... 鎮江 Hangchow..... 杭州 Soochow..... 蘇州	Daily " " " " " " " " " " " By steamer Daily " " "	40 cash. " " " " " " " " " " " 50 cash. 40 cash. " " "
46	Cheng Ho Ho Chi..... 正和合記	Ningpo..... 寧波 Wenchow..... 溫州 Foochow..... 福州 Hangchow..... 杭州	Daily By steamer " Daily	40 cash. 50 cash. " 40 cash.

II.—UNREGISTERED NATIVE POSTAL HONGS.

Designation of Hong.	To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
Yung Ho Jen..... 永和仁	Kashang..... 嘉興 Hu-chou..... 湖州 Hsia-shih..... 石林 Shuang-lin..... 雙林 Wu-chén..... 烏鎮 T'ung-hsiang..... 桐鄉 Hangchow..... 杭州 Fu-yang..... 富陽 Yü-hang..... 餘杭	Daily " " " " " " " "	50 cash. 70 cash. " " " 60 cash. 70 cash. "
Lín Jén Chi..... 林仁記	Kashang..... 嘉興 Hu-chou..... 湖州 Hsia-shih..... 石林 Shuang-lin..... 雙林 Wu-chén..... 烏鎮	Daily " " " "	50 cash. 70 cash. " " "

Designation of Hong.	To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
Lín Jén Chi—continued.	T'ung-hsiang..... 桐鄉 Hangchow..... 杭州 Fu-yang..... 富陽 Yü-hang..... 餘杭	Daily " " "	70 cash. 60 cash. 70 cash. "
Yung Tai Fêng..... 永泰豐	Kashang..... 嘉興 Hu-chou..... 湖州 Hsia-shih..... 石林 Shuang-lin..... 雙林 Wu-chén..... 烏鎮 T'ung-hsiang..... 桐鄉 Hangchow..... 杭州 Fu-yang..... 富陽 Yü-hang..... 餘杭	Daily " " " " " " " " "	50 cash. 70 cash. " " " 60 cash. 70 cash. "
Lao Cheng Ta..... 老正大	T'ai-tsang-chou..... 太倉 Lo-tien..... 店 Nan-hsiang..... 南翔 Kiating..... 嘉定 Soochow..... 蘇州 Wusi..... 無錫 Changchow..... 常州 Li-yang..... 宜陵 Tan-yang..... 丹陽 Méng-ho..... 孟河 T'ung-li..... 同里 Changshu..... 常熟	Daily " " " " " " " " " " "	40 cash. " 24 cash. " 50 cash. 70 cash. " " " " "
T'ung Shun..... 通順	Soochow..... 蘇州 Wusi..... 無錫 Changchow..... 常州 Li-yang..... 宜陵 Tan-yang..... 丹陽 Méng-ho..... 孟河 T'ung-li..... 同里 Changshu..... 常熟	Daily " " " " " " "	50 cash. 70 cash. " " " " "
Hsieh Yüan Wang Chi..... 協源在記	Sungkiang..... 松江 Cha-p'u..... 滌浦 Chu-ching..... 滌涇 Fêng-ching..... 平興 P'ing-hu..... 平湖 Kashang..... 嘉興 Hu-chou..... 湖州 Hsia-shih..... 石林 Shuang-lin..... 雙林 Wu-chén..... 烏鎮 T'ung-hsiang..... 桐鄉 Hangchow..... 杭州 Fu-yang..... 富陽	Daily " " " " " " " " " " " "	24 cash. 40 cash. 30 cash. " 50 cash. " 70 cash. " " " 60 cash. 70 cash.

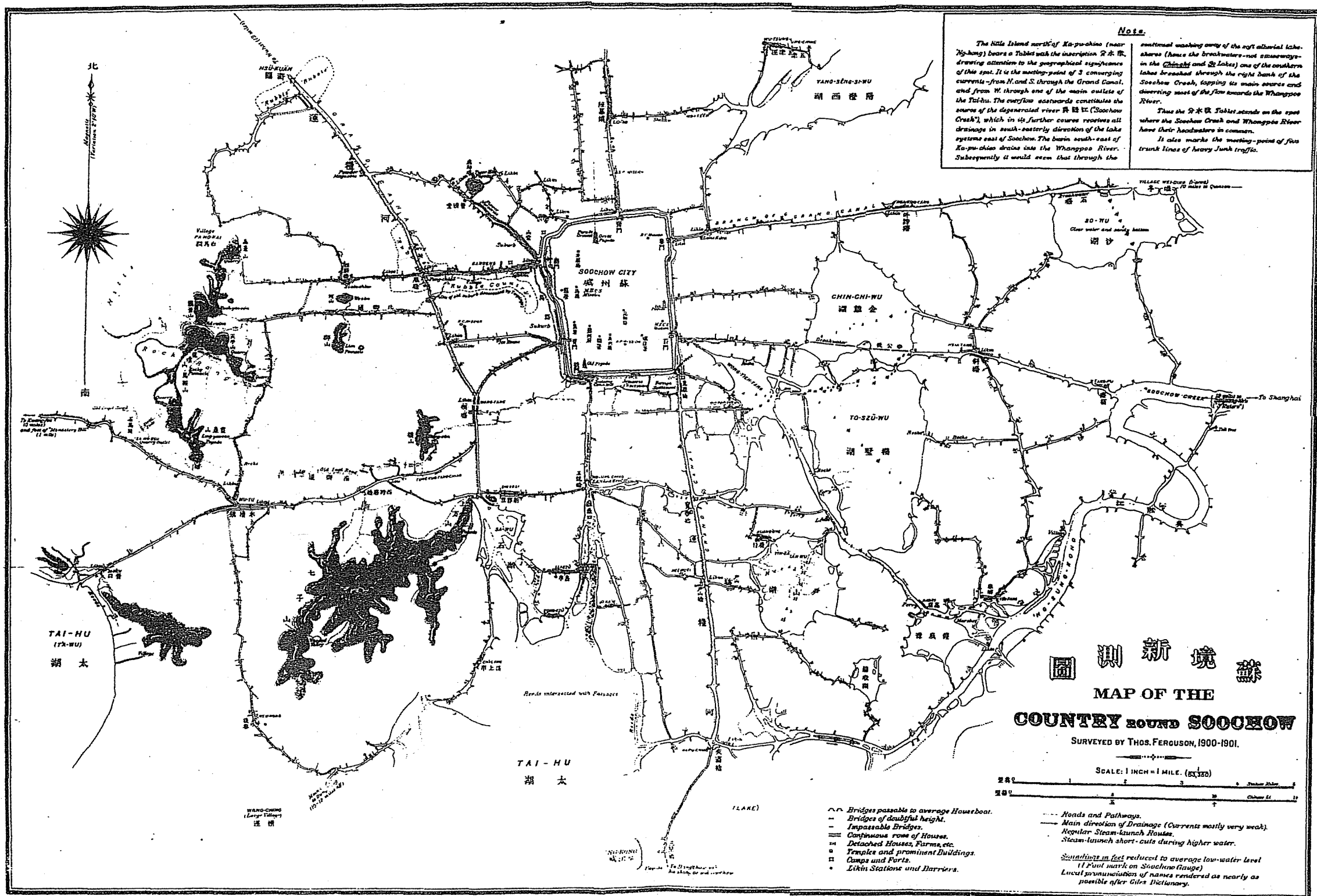
DESIGNATION OF HONG.	To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
Haieh Yüan.....	協源	Soochow.....	Daily 50 cash.
		Wusi.....	" 70 cash.
		Changchow.....	" "
		Li-yang.....	" "
		Tan-yang.....	" "
		Méng-ho.....	" "
		T'ung-li.....	" "
Shun Ch'eng.....	順成	Changshu.....	" "
		Sungkiang.....	Daily 24 cash.
		Cha-p'u.....	" 40 cash.
		Chu-ching.....	" 30 cash.
		Féng-ching.....	" "
		P'ing-hu.....	" 50 cash.
		Kashing.....	" "
		Hu-chou.....	" 70 cash.
		Hsia-shih.....	" "
		Shuang-lin.....	" "
		Wu-chén.....	" "
		T'ung-hsiang.....	" "
		Hangchow.....	" 60 cash.
		Fu-yang.....	" 70 cash.
		Yü-hang.....	" "
Haieh Ta.....	協大	Kashing.....	... 50 cash.
		Hu-chou.....	... 70 cash.
		Hsia-shih.....	... "
		Shuang-lin.....	... "
		Wu-chén.....	... "
		T'ung-hsiang.....	... "
		Hangchow.....	Daily 60 cash.
		Fu-yang.....	" 70 cash.
Hung Yüan.....	鴻源	Yü-hang.....	" "
		Soochow.....	Daily 50 cash.
		Wusi.....	" 70 cash.
		Changchow.....	" "
		Li-yang.....	" "
		Tan-yang.....	" "
		Méng-ho.....	" "
Pao Shun.....	寶順	T'ung-li.....	" "
		Changshu.....	" "
		Nan-hui.....	Daily 24 cash.
		Ch'uan-sha.....	" "
		Chou-p'u.....	" "
		T'ai-tsang-chou.....	" 40 cash.
		Lo-tien.....	" "

DESIGNATION OF HONG.	To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
Pao Shun—continued.	通裕	Nan-hsiang.....	Daily 24 cash.
		Kiating.....	" "
		Soochow.....	" 50 cash.
		Wusi.....	" 70 cash.
		Changchow.....	" "
		Li-yang.....	" "
		Tan-yang.....	" "
T'ung Yü.....	日生	Méng-ho.....	" "
		T'ung-li.....	" "
		Changshu.....	" "
Jih Shéng.....	全盛和記	Nan-hui.....	Daily 24 cash.
		Ch'uan-sha.....	" "
		Chou-p'u.....	" "
Ch'uan Ch'eng Ho Chi.....	致大	Kashing.....	Daily 50 cash.
		Hu-chou.....	" 70 cash.
		Hsia-shih.....	" "
		Shuang-lin.....	" "
		Wu-chén.....	" "
		T'ung-hsiang.....	" "
		Hangchow.....	" 60 cash.
		Fu-yang.....	" 70 cash.
Chih Ta.....	德和	Yü-hang.....	" "
		T'ai-tsang-chou.....	Daily 40 cash.
		Lo-tien.....	" "
		Nan-hsiang.....	" 24 cash.
		Kiating.....	" "
		Kashing.....	" 50 cash.
		Hu-chou.....	" 70 cash.
		Hsia-shih.....	" "
Té Ho.....	吳湛	Shuang-lin.....	" "
		Wu-chén.....	" "
		T'ung-hsiang.....	" "
		Hangchow.....	" 60 cash.
		Fu-yang.....	" 70 cash.
		Yü-hang.....	" "
		Woosung.....	Daily 16 cash.

DESIGNATION OF HONG.		To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
Kung Li	公利	Hui-chou.....	徽州	Daily 100 cash.
Ma Ch'eng Y'uan.....	馬正源	Hui-chou.....	徽州	Daily 100 cash.
Ch'uan T'ai Shun.....	全泰順	Hui-chou.....	徽州	Daily 100 cash.
H'eng Li.....	恒利	Lan-ch'i.....	蘭谿	Daily 120 cash.
		Lung-yu.....	龍游	" 160 cash.
		Ch'ü-chou.....	衢州	" "
		Chin-hua.....	金華	" "
		Ch'ang-shan.....	常山	" "
		Yü-shan.....	玉山	" "
		Kuang-hsin-fu.....	廣信府	" "
		Yen-chou.....	嚴州	" "
Ch'uan T'ai Fu.....	全泰福	Foochow.....	福州	By steamer 100 cash.
Yung Chi Ch'ang.....	永其昌	Sha-t'ou.....	沙頭	Daily 24 cash.
		Teungming.....	崇明	" "
Yung Ho Ho.....	永和合	Hangchow.....	杭州	Daily 60 cash.
		Kashing.....	嘉興	" 50 cash.
		Hu-chou.....	湖州	" 70 cash.
Hsieh T'ai Shun.....	協泰順	Lan-ch'i.....	蘭谿	Daily 120 cash.
		Lung-yu.....	龍游	" 160 cash.
		Ch'ü-chou.....	衢州	" "
		Chin-hua.....	金華	" "
		Ch'ang-shan.....	常山	" "
		Yü-shan.....	玉山	" "
		Kuang-hsin-fu.....	廣信府	" "
		Yen-chou.....	嚴州	" "
Yü Hsing K'ang.....	興裕康	Tungchow.....	通州	Daily 50 cash.
		Haimén.....	海門	" 70 cash.
		Ju-kao.....	如皋	" "
		Chin-sha.....	金沙	" "
		Pai-p'u.....	白浦	" "
		Kiangyin.....	江陰	" 50 cash.
		Ching-chiang.....	靖江	" "
		Chinkiang.....	鎮江	" "
		Yangchow.....	揚州	" 70 cash.
		Hsien-nü-miao.....	仙女廟	" "
		Taichow.....	泰州	" "
		Hsing-hua.....	興化	" "
		Yen-ch'ang.....	鹽城	" "
		Shao-pai.....	邵伯	" "
		Kao-yu.....	高郵	" "
		Tsingkiangpu.....	清江浦	" 100 cash.
		Hsü-chou.....	徐州	" "

DESIGNATION OF HONG.		To what Place.	On what Days.	At what Rate.
Yü Hsing K'ang—continued.		T'ao-yüan.....	桃源	Daily 100 cash.
		Hsiu-ch'ien.....	息縣	" "
		T'ai-érh-chuang.....	太倉	" "
		Chi-ning-chou.....	清河	" "
		Honan.....	河南	" 200 cash.*
		Nanking.....	南京	" 70 cash.
		Liu-ho.....	六合	" "
		Hu-shu.....	盱眙	" 100 cash.
		Ch'u-chou.....	滁州	" "
		Wuhu.....	蕪湖	" 70 cash.
		T'ai-p'ing-fu.....	太平府	" "
		Ning-kuo-fu.....	寧國府	" "
		Ho-chou.....	和州	" "
		Ch'ao-hsien.....	巢縣	" "
		Yün-ts'ao.....	廬江	" "
		Lü-chou-fu.....	六安府	" 100 cash.
		Liu-an-chou.....	六安州	" "
		Po-chou.....	亳縣	" "
		Feng-yang-fu.....	鳳陽府	" "
		Yüan-chou-fu.....	懷遠府	" "
		Tatung.....	大通	" 70 cash.
		Ho-yüeh-chou.....	和悅州	" "
		Anking.....	安慶	" "
		Kiukiang.....	九江	" "
		Kiangsi.....	江西	" 100 cash.
		Chang-shu.....	常州	" "
		Ho-k'ou.....	河口	" "
		Hankow.....	漢口	" 80 cash.
		Hupei.....	湖北	" "
		Shasi.....	沙市	" 100 cash.
		Ichang.....	宜昌	" "
		Hunan.....	湖南	" "
		Chungking.....	重慶	" 200 cash.

* In advance, 100 cash; on delivery, 100 cash.



SOOCHOW.

REPORT, 1896-1901.

(a.) With slight allowance, a considerable part of MARCO POLO's short description of Soochow is still true:—"Suju is a very great and noble city. The people are idolaters, subjects of the great Kaan, and have paper money. They possess Silk in great quantities, from which they make gold brocade and other stuffs, and live by their manufactures and trade. . . . The city . . . hath merchants of great wealth and an incalculable number of people. . . . But they [the men of this city] are no soldiers at all, only accomplished traders and most skilful craftsmen. There are also in this city many philosophers and leeches, diligent students of nature." And the changes in the physical aspect of the city are not so great as might be supposed. There is a map on marble in the Confucian Temple which has been reproduced in the second edition of Colonel YULE's "MARCO POLO," from a copy supplied by Mr. A. WYLIE. Mr. WYLIE gives its date as A.D. 1247, but there is no date to be found on the slab. Some caution is needed in identifying places, for, as Mr. WYLIE notes, "many of the names have been obliterated;" but the gates are as now, the yaméns of the Treasurer, Judge, Prefect, Wu-hsien, and Yuan-ho-hsien are in the same places, as are the Taoist Temple (元妙觀) and the City Temple (城隍廟) and most of the pagodas. The Grand Canal, apparently, did not run under the south wall, but south or south-east from the Pan-mén—possibly under the present Five Dragon Bridge (五龍橋) and the Fifty-three Arch Bridge (寶帶橋). The size of the city has been exaggerated: Mr. T. FERGUSON, 2nd Assistant, A, has measured the circumference of the walls, and finds it to be somewhat under 10 miles, instead of the 14 miles it has usually been called. Mr. FERGUSON also surveyed the waterways around Soochow (with an instrument of his own invention) much more carefully than has been attempted before, and has compiled a map, a copy of which is appended to this Report.

Dr. PARKER, in the "Recorder," has given much of the ancient history of Soochow; and Dr. DU BOSE's "Beautiful Soo" is a sufficient account of the present city, when allowance is made for its high colouring.

The last Shanghai and Decennial Reports brought the history of the province down to the end of 1891. It does not appear that there was any event of importance at Soochow since then until the opening of the port to trade, in the autumn of 1896, in accordance with Article VI of the Shimonoseki Treaty with Japan. The official date of opening was 26th September, though, in fact, Foreign launches had been plying between Shanghai and

Soochow for a fortnight before. The Custom House was opened on 1st October in temporary quarters, boats being used for an office and for housing the Out-door staff, a matshed for the examination of cargo, and a Native house in the city for In-door staff quarters. Building was begun as soon as possible, and the Jetty, Examination Shed, godown, and Custom House were finished in 1897, and the staff quarters in 1898.

The opening of the port was distasteful to the officials, who expected that there would be a diversion of provincial revenue and an influx of Foreigners whose presence would give rise to constant disputes. Their expectations have not been justified; and as soon as it was perceived that they would not be, there was no difficulty in establishing friendly official relations. Once established, they have continued ever since, and for this much is due to the personal example of such Governors as K'UEI CHÜN (奎俊), LU CH'UAN-LIN (鹿傳霖), and NIEH CH'I-K'UEI (聶緝槩). Whatever may be the truth about LU CH'UAN-LIN's later career, he was, while Governor here, an independent, decided, and fair-minded man, who had the respect of all who had business with him.

On the opening of the port, there were laid out for Foreign residence a General Foreign Settlement and a Japanese Concession, the status of the latter being in accordance with the provisions of the Protocol of 19th October 1896. The Regulations of the General Foreign Settlement were agreed upon by the provincial officials and the Treaty Power Consuls of Shanghai, and are sufficiently liberal. They have the great virtue of not being too minute and attempting to provide for conditions that have not yet arisen; their chief defect is in not defining clearly enough the responsibility for seeing that the restrictions are carried out. In general, the Regulations lay down the terms of lease of land, renewal of lease and transfer, the rate of land tax and method of collecting it, and the responsibility of constructing and keeping in repair drains, roads, and jetties, and of policing the Settlement. The restrictions are these: the leasing of land is confined to subjects of Treaty Powers (this is evaded by Foreigners lending their names); the amount of land which can be leased by one person is limited to 6 *mou*; no straw or mat sheds or low-class wooden dwellings may be erected; and no explosive may be stored in the Settlement or conveyed through it without permission. The land in the Settlement was classed in three grades, the lease price of which was \$250, \$160, and \$100 per *mou*; and land tax was fixed at 3,000 cash per *mou* for the first 10 years, and 4,000 cash thereafter. Leases run for 30 years, and may be renewed without payment; if not renewed they will be cancelled. The lease price of land in the Japanese Concession was \$160 per *mou* uniformly. The question of the private use of the foreshore between the Bund road and the canal was left undecided, the Japanese stipulating that whatever was allowed in the Settlement should be allowed in their Concession. Nobody can doubt the wisdom of reserving the foreshore for the benefit of the public, with access to the water by a sufficient number of jetties.

It may be said at once that very little use has been made of either Settlement or Concession. Besides the Customs and police buildings, there are on the Settlement only the Chino-European Filature, a Foreign building rented by the post office, a few blocks of Chinese houses occupied chiefly by filature operatives, and some hideous Cocoon ovens. It may

seem, then, that \$250 a *mou* was a high price to pay for land which would need filling in; but the lots were taken up at once. On the Japanese Concession there are a few Native houses, shops, and theatres. The Japanese post office has moved recently from inside the city to a semi-Foreign building on the Concession, but the Government has not thought it worth while to build a Consulate. There have been Japanese Consuls living in the city since the port was opened; but no British Consul has resided here since 1900, and the Consulate was closed and the archives removed in 1901.

The existence of Settlements for Foreign residents, therefore, has had no effect on the place, except so far as it necessitated the building of roads which attracted pleasure-seekers from the city and suggested the extension of the Bund road, for their convenience, along the canal on the south and west sides of the city, as far as the north-west gate (閘門). So long as the road did not go beyond the P'an-mên (盤門), there was much driving on the Settlement, and a lively suburb of shops, theatres, opium saloons, etc., sprang up at the P'an-mên end of the road, much resembling the Foochow Road of Shanghai; but as the road reached the Hsü-mên (胥門) and Ch'ang-mên, most of the places of amusement were transferred to the neighbourhood of those gates, by which their patrons more easily reach them, and the P'an-mên suburb is half deserted and few carriages and jinrickshas frequent the Settlement. This road-building has assisted the tendency of the city to expand towards the north-west, the only quarter in which there is anything remotely suggesting the suburbs which the city is reputed to have had years ago. The principal Soochow station of the Shanghai-Nanking Railway is to be in the north-west suburb, and this will increase still more the growth of the city in that direction.

In addition to what has been spoken of above, the only signs of a port are factories, viz., three Silk filatures and a Cotton mill. The Chino-European (延昌永) Filature is under Foreign management; the Wu Sing (吳興) Filature is owned and managed by Chinese; the Soo King (蘇經) Filature is owned by the Bureau of Commerce (商務局) and is leased to Chinese. These filatures have, in all, some 700 bassets, and employ about 2,500 hands. The Soo Lun (蘇輪) Cotton Mill, also owned by the Bureau of Commerce, and worked by the lessees of the Soo King Filature, runs 18,200 spindles, and gives employment to as many hands as the filatures. The Soo King and Wu Sing Filatures began work in 1897, and the Chino-European Filature in 1900; the Soo Lun Mill began work in 1897. There is also a Cotton mill at Wusueh, operating 10,000 spindles and employing some 1,100 hands, which began work in 1897. Neither filatures nor mills have prospered. The causes are the same which have affected the factories at Shanghai, with which the Shanghai Report will deal, and need not be repeated here; but it may be added that if the finances of the Soo Lun Mill had been kept distinct from those of the Soo King Filature, the mill would have had a better chance of success.

Nor did the opening of Soochow make much change in the course and amount of trade. The inconvenient clause of the Su-Hang-Hu Rules, under which steam traffic is carried on, requiring Foreign Imports to take out Drawbacks at Shanghai and pay Duty again here, far outweighs any advantage of quicker transit; and almost all the Imports and Exports have continued to come and go in the old way. In the first half of 1897 half a million taels worth of Foreign Piece Goods were brought from Shanghai through the Foreign Customs; since then

none. Of this trial, Mr. MONTGOMERY wrote:—"The merchants, however, soon discovered this to be an inconvenient method, reverted to the old system, and brought their goods to Soochow independently of the Customs. A certain yearly amount of Likin being guaranteed by the dealers, payment of Likin is not escaped by shipping through the Foreign Customs, while, on the other hand, much trouble is incurred, and capital locked up needlessly, by the system of granting Drawbacks instead of Exemption Certificates at Shanghai on Foreign Imports re-exported to Soochow." Cargo, either import or export, which can be transhipped at Shanghai finds some advantage in the new arrangements, but the amount of such cargo is small.

And the amount of trade increases very slowly. Foreign residents who have lived here long enough to be able to make comparison think there is more life, activity, and bustle in the business sections of the city than there was 10 years ago; if they are right, it is almost certainly due to the natural growth of a large city—and even that growth is admittedly not a large one. One need not lay too much to the Taiping Rebellion. Disastrous as the Rebellion was, Soochow would have recovered from it before 40 years had elapsed, had there been no other more lasting cause at work. It is the rise of Shanghai as a business centre that has stopped the restoration of Soochow to its former position; and this cause will continue to act. If Soochow had been opened earlier, before so much capital was fixed in filatures at Shanghai, it is possible that most of them would have been built here. To that extent the place might have benefited, but not otherwise; traders could not have resisted the tendency to resort to the largest market.

Perhaps the best result of the opening of the port—the one which has given the most convenience to the most people—has been the improvement of the means of communication. The stern-wheel man-power boats spoken of in the last Shanghai Decennial Report had been given up, and launches towing boats were running, before the port was opened; but they were vessels of small power, and ran irregularly, under indefinite official permission, which gave the favoured ones something like monopoly. Under the new conditions competition has steadily improved the quality and regularity of the service, and official inspection of the launches has secured the proper standard of efficiency and safety. For some years there has been no serious accident. The number of passengers by launch has risen from 200,000 in 1897 to 350,000 in 1901.

But more interesting, and more important, than the opening of the port was the rise and spread of liberal ideas in this part of Kiangsu, and especially at Soochow. By 1898 schools for teaching Foreign languages, and associations for mutual improvement in speaking and reading, learning the history of Foreign countries, discussing the relations between China and other nations, and the best methods of adopting improvements, had sprung up in large numbers. It should be said at once that there was nothing seditious or anti-dynastic in these associations. Their object was education; they were the outcome of a genuine belief that China had much to learn from other countries—that change was necessary for China's welfare, and that it must come. It has been said by those who were not in sympathy with this movement that it was superficial and self-seeking; that those who engaged in it were indifferent to the quality of their knowledge, and thought only of having an advantage by being among the first to be ready for the expected change. In comparison with the difficulty of starting any new departure in this

country, this is not a reproach of much consequence; but, such as it is, it may be admitted at once as applicable to some part. Some of the teaching was crude; there were teachers who might better have gone to school again; and there were pupils who thought only of bettering themselves. Of some part it may be said that it was pathetic in the ill-advised search of earnest seekers after knowledge, and even ludicrous in grotesque imitation of Foreign ways. Mistakes were inevitable, but were of no great importance in a movement the most encouraging feature of which was the attempt at self-help. To characterise the whole as superficial and selfish is certainly incorrect. Many had a wide outlook and much was unselfish. One association, of which I have personal knowledge, was formed for the purpose of spreading among Chinese a knowledge of Foreign skill in obstetrics, of recommending Foreign methods in childbirth cases, and of providing, eventually, trained Native surgeons and nurses. The founder, who was moved by a painful experience in his own family, was ready to spend time and money in relieving pain and saving life among his country-women. Mention should also be made of frequent requests to the missionary societies to open schools for women and girls; and these requests came from families of means and standing.

The Imperial Decrees in the early part of 1898 greatly encouraged this spirit of change, and the sudden reversal of Imperial policy in the autumn of that year was a great shock. Many of the schools and almost all of the associations were closed. To be connected with an "association" (會), however innocent its object, was to be suspected. At this time, however, there was an air of waiting—an expectation that the set-back would be only temporary; and it was not until the Imperial Commissioner KANG I came to Soochow, in the next year, that it was felt to be positively dangerous to be connected with innovation.

In the meantime a more important scheme of education had been conceived. The Government school (中西學堂) which had been established in obedience to one of the decrees of 1898, with a provision of Ta 20,000 for buildings and a yearly appropriation of Ta 10,000, had not commenced work. The Methodist Episcopal Church, South, which pays much attention to education, projected, in conjunction with influential Chinese—among whom was CHIANG PIAO (江樑), Literary Chancellor of Hunan a short time before,—a college for higher education. Financial aid from the United States was promised, but upon the express condition that the Chinese showed sufficient interest by themselves subscribing a substantial amount. The details of the plan were explained at a public meeting in November 1899, and the prospectus distributed in Soochow, Nanjing, and Changshu. In response \$20,000 were subscribed. To this was added a sum of \$104,000, gold, subscribed in the United States. A sufficient piece of ground within the city was bought easily, with the active help of the officials, from the Governor LU CH'UAN-LIN (鹿傳霖) downwards. The state of China in 1900 deferred building; but the contracts have now been let, and work will be begun early in 1902. The college is called the Eastern Kiangnan College (東吳大學堂). It will start well equipped and well endowed. Under the auspices of the same mission, a school for women and girls, to be called the Laura Haygood Memorial School, has been projected, and \$35,000, gold, have been subscribed in the United States; subscriptions in China have not been invited. Negotiations for the site are now going on, and building will begin in 1902.

The Government school (中西學堂) spoken of above was opened in 1900, for elementary instruction of 75 to 100 pupils in English and French.

In 1901 there was a new departure in Chinese juvenile education. Schools known as the 南洋小學堂 were opened, in different parts of the city, in which the time-honoured *san-tzu-ching* and *chien-tzu-wen* were discarded, and instruction given in reading and writing, mental and written arithmetic, and geography—practical (for want of a better term) instead of classical education. This change was advocated by a graduate and teacher, LU CHI (陸基), with a summary of whose pamphlet on the subject I have been favoured. He urges that the first teaching of boys should be practical. Not one in a thousand, he argues, will ever make a name for himself; and it is better to start with such teaching as explanation of the meaning of words, writing, mental and written arithmetic, and geography—all of which will be of advantage to the scholar who carries his studies on to the classical books, but indispensable to the boy who gives up school and learns a trade. If, therefore, the study of the classics is deferred, no boy will have wasted his time in useless study. He insists that this is not a modern innovation, but a return to the ideas of CHU HSI (朱熹), CH'ENG WEI-CHAI (程畏齋), and LU FU-TING (陸桴亭): "If, therefore, anyone, without investigating the matter, thinks that these are modern methods, let him know that every one of them had its origin with the men of old and has a long history; we are merely walking in the old paths." Instruction is given by means of primers after the style of Foreign school-books. The schools have obtained official recognition. All these are necessary steps on the road to determining the proper proportions of the study of Chinese literature and European science, and to teaching the latter in Chinese.

The Imperial Post Office was opened at the Settlement in February 1897, and in the city in April of the same year. Besides the offices, there are 17 letter-boxes in the city and suburbs. Rapid means of communication are not sufficiently developed yet in China to show the full value of the Imperial Post, but the work has increased steadily from the beginning. Inland offices were opened at Wusi and Changshu in 1901, and there is a daily mail to and from those places, as well as to and from Nanjing.

By arrangement with the Shanghai Commissioner, a large number of topics which cannot be treated adequately here have been left to him.

(b.) and (c.)

(d.) The proportion of Native Opium to Foreign consumed in and about Soochow has increased in the last five years, but not greatly or rapidly. The amount is now somewhat more than five-tenths of the total quantity; in 1896 it was under four-tenths. The price of Native Opium has risen greatly—Yunnan Opium, which sold for \$300 a picul in 1896, now being worth \$570; Szechwan, \$450 in 1896, \$530 now; Kiangsu, \$400 in 1896, \$625 now. In general, the higher price of Native Opium is due to (1°) the price of Foreign Opium; (2°) improvement in quality. The latter has been the greater factor. Drug of better quality both yields a product of more acceptable taste and is more economical in use, and the dealer in Prepared Opium can afford to give a higher price for it. As between the three kinds of Native Opium used here—Szechwan, Yunnan, and Kiangsu (including some Anhwei and Honan Opium which passes as Kiangsu),—variations in price are due, in the main, to scarcity of

one kind and the demand for another to fill its place. There is, of course, a demand created by the taste for a particular kind among those who prepare their own Opium for smoking or have it specially prepared for them; but this is a comparatively limited demand, and to ordinary purchasers at the Prepared Opium shops the Native drug, without distinction of kind, is sold under the name of 西土, i.e. (originally), Szechwan, but now used for all kinds. Adulteration brings the qualities to a level in price.

(e.) and (f.)

(g.) The opening of the port, with a Custom House, post office, and Consulates, the establishment of a police force, and the starting of filatures and mills, brought additional Europeans to the place, the number of whom has varied from time to time, but is now 20; and of Japanese, whose number has varied between 60 and 25—of these a dozen are on the staffs of the Japanese Consulate and post office.

The Protestant missionaries have increased from 24 in 1891 to 37 this year.

Factories have given new employment to some 4,000 work-people. By far the greater part are people of the place; but the skilled mechanics are Ningpo men, who show great aptitude for that kind of work.

(h.) In the General Foreign Settlement a Bund road has been made, and three roads parallel with it, with three cross streets completed and one unfinished. The work has been fairly well done, but there is not enough traffic on some of the roads to keep the weeds down. In the Japanese Concession the Bund road and one cross street are the only roads. Public street-lighting has yet to come.

The General Foreign Settlement is under the charge of the Bureau of Foreign Affairs (洋務局), whose head is the Grain Commissioner and Superintendent of Customs; and the Chinese authorities have made and kept up the roads on the Japanese Concession. The Bund road extension is under the care of the Bureau of Commerce (商務局). License fees on carriages, jinrickshas, and ponies, house, shop, and theatre taxes, and fees for special police duty, provide for the maintenance of the police force and the upkeep of the roads.

The police force, for duty in the General Foreign Settlement and the Bund road extension, numbers 68 constables, under a Foreign superintendent and inspector. The head-quarters, comprising office, constables quarters, cells, and superintendent's house, are on the Foreign Settlement, and there is a branch station, off the main road, in the extension.

The police station and the yamens in the city are connected by telephone.

The Japanese Concession is policed by the Japanese, with a few Chinese constables under a Japanese inspector.

(i.) to (k.)

(l.) There has been no special reception of visitors, and the most distinguished have come *incognito*.

Prince and Princess HENRY of Prussia spent a day here in April 1899; their coming was unannounced. Prince KONYÉ, President of the House of Peers in the Japanese Diet, came as a private individual in November of the same year. Sir HENRY BLAKE, Governor

of Hongkong, and Lady BLAKE spent two days, on a pleasure trip, in and about the city in April 1900. No official notice was taken of the presence of any of these.

Mr. CONGER, United States Minister at Peking, came in September 1899 to open the Tooker Memorial Hospital. There was not sufficient notice of his coming to do more than provide a suitable reception at landing, and he made only a short stay.

The Imperial Commissioner KANG I (剛毅) spent from the 26th July to the 8th August 1899 here in investigating the possibility of providing from provincial resources more money for Imperial use; and LI PING-HANG (李秉衡) came in July 1900 on an errand which was cut short, before it became fully known, by his transfer to the joint command of the Army of the North, in which post he met the allied troops marching to the relief of Peking and his death.

(m.) Accurate records of the number of Kiangsu *chü-jên* who have become *chin-shih* in the last 10 years—a period which includes three regular examinations, in 1892, 1895, and 1898, and an extra examination in 1894—are not obtainable here, but a calculation approximately accurate puts the number at 90 to 95; and in the same period 53 succeeded in the Palace examinations and were admitted into the ranks of the Hanlin.

One *chuang-yüan* of the period was a Kiangsu man—CHANG CHIEN (張謇), a native of Tungechow (通州), on the north side of the Yangtze, who was successful in 1894. As is customary, he became a Hanlin Compiler (翰林院修撰). In 1897-98 he was one of the promoters of a cotton mill in his native place; and later on was attached to the yamén of the Governor General of the Liang Hu, and was then employed in drawing up the memoranda on which were based the proposals for reform advocated by CHANG CHIH-TUNG and LIU K'UN-I in Memorials to the Throne this year.

There have been no *pung-yen* and *tan-hua* from Kiangsu in the last 10 years.

(n.) * * * * *

(o.) The number of *hsiu-ts'ui* allotted to Kiangsu is 1,779; and of *chü-jên*, 88.

The last reckoning gives the population of the province in 1894 as 24,600,000 (PARKER, from official sources).

The education of females is more common in Kiangsu than elsewhere in the Empire. At Soochow the proportion of females who can read is put at 5 per cent.

(p.) * * * * *

(q.) A list of the kinds of Native boats found at Soochow, their cost, the number of their crews, and the trade they engage in is given at the end of this Report (*see* Appendix); this list has been compiled by Mr. Assistant Examiner McGLASHAN. Junks carry no ships papers, and there is no form of Native insurance against loss. Nothing can be learned respecting the capital they represent, or the profits or losses.

(r.) There are in Soochow nine large remittance banks (票號), through which money can be remitted to all the open ports and large cities of the Empire, either by direct drafts or by drafts procured at Shanghai from banks which are agents of the Soochow banks. As a rule, these banks deal only in large amounts. Four of them do most of the business

with the North and manage official remittances. Only two issue drafts on places in Yunnan and Kweichow. The premium for direct drafts on some of the principal ports recently was as follows:—

Tientsin	2 per cent.	Chinkiang	$\frac{2}{3}$ per cent.
Chungking	3 " "	Shanghai	$\frac{1}{2}$ " "
Hankow	$\frac{1}{2}$ " "	Canton	1 " "

The capital of the smallest of the remittance banks is, in round numbers, Ta 100,000; of the largest, Ta 400,000. They receive deposits, but do not encourage them, and the rate of interest allowed is so low that little of this business is done. They do not issue notes.

In addition to the remittance banks, there is a class called 大錢莊, whose business is more local. They issue notes—both tael notes and cash notes—for local circulation, and drafts for small amounts on places near at hand, like Chinkiang, Changchow, Wusi, Changshu, Hangchow, and Shanghai. Their capital is from Ta 2,000 for the smallest to Ta 20,000 for the largest.

The distinguishing features of all the banks are (1°) ownership by individuals or firms, not by corporations; (2°) dependence on their own capital without deposits.

(s.) There are between 30 and 40 Native postal hongts in Soochow, with branches throughout Kiangsu and Chehkiang and agencies in all the coast ports from Newchwang to Canton. The owners are almost all Ningpo men—indeed, in this part of China postal business seems to be a speciality of natives of Chehkiang. In the long list of places to which letters can be sent, I find all the 18 provinces represented except Kansuh: letters for places in Kansuh are sent to Hupeh (Hankow) or Shensi to be forwarded. There are no absolutely fixed weights, and rates are somewhat elastic. For the same service the hongts charge nearly uniform rates; but as between customers, a difference is made between frequent and infrequent customers, shops and individuals, well-known and unknown people. Prepayment is usual, but may be waived, the option lying with the hong and not with the customer. In almost all cases the addressee pays a delivery charge. Foot-boats (腳划船) are the common means of transporting mails inland in this province south of the Yangtze.

(t.) The Su-Hang-Hu Rules which were adopted at the opening of the port, in 1896, have continued to regulate traffic with Shanghai and Hangchow, with a single modification: in 1901, at the instance of the Japanese, an alternative route to Hangchow, *via* Nanzing, Hu-chou, and Ling-hu, was sanctioned. So far, only the Japanese launch company has taken advantage of this new route.

The Inland Steam Navigation Rules (amended) came into force in 1898. Steam navigation inland has never justified expectations; it is not suited for most of the waterways. Low water, low bridges, and narrow canals interfere with the running of launches, except on the Grand Canal, and even there shallows frequently stop them from getting beyond Wusi. Such traffic as there is is passenger traffic—it does not pay cargo-boats to get towed; and for passenger traffic, for short distances, the competition of sailing-boats is strong.

The Soochow Customs Regulations have remained unchanged.

The Kiangsu Likin Collectorate, organised, in 1898, to control the collection of Likin in the Shanghai and Soochow districts for the service of the Anglo-German loan, has gathered a mass of information about Likin, but has not taken the actual work of collection into its own hands.

(u.)

(v.) The missionary societies represented at Soochow are—

American Baptist Mission, South.

" Methodist Episcopal Church, South.

Woman's Board of the American Methodist Episcopal Church, South.

American Presbyterian Mission, North.

" " " South.

Ladies Missionary Society (of Augusta, Ga.).

Mission Catholique du Kiangnan.

The number of Foreign adults connected with these missions is: Protestant, 37; Roman Catholic, 1.

The adherents of the Protestant missions at Soochow number between 800 and 900; of the Catholic mission, between 2,500 and 2,600.

The educational work of the missions has been spoken of under (a). In addition, there are three hospitals. The oldest, the Soochow Hospital of the Methodist Episcopal Church, has been in operation a long time; the Elizabeth Blake Hospital of the Southern Presbyterian Mission was opened in 1897; the Tooker Memorial Hospital, connected with the Northern Presbyterian Mission, was opened in 1899.

(w.) The following is a list of the *hui-kuan* at Soochow:—

Eight Banner (八旗奉直)	Commonly called the Manchu Hui-kuan.
Shansi (山西)	
Chung-chou (中州)	Commonly called the Honan Hui-kuan.
Anhui (安徽)	
Kiangsi (江西)	
Hunan (湖南)	
Liang Kwang (兩廣)	Kwangtung and Kwangsi.
Wu-an (武安)	Honan.
Hsin-an (新安)	Anhui.
Hsüan-chou (宣州)	"
Yuan-ning (元寧)	A name for Nanking.
Cheh-ning (浙寧)	Chehkiang.
Cheh-chia (浙嘉)	"
Cheh-shao (浙紹)	"
Ch'ien-chiang (錢江)	"
Wu-lin (武林)	"
Chiu-hua (金華)	"

Hsia-chang (霞漳)	Fuhkien.
San-shan (三山)	"
T'ing-chou (汀州)	"
Ling-nan (嶺南)	Kwangtung.
Kang-chou (岡州)	"
Chia-ying (嘉應)	"
Duck Eggs (鴨蛋)	Local trade.
Gypsum (白石)	"

Of these 25 *hui-kuan*, 13 are inside the city and 12 in the suburbs outside the west and north-west gates. The Hunan Guild has a hall in the city and one outside. The Kashing (浙嘉) Guild has no building, the boundary stones of a vacant piece of ground marking the site of a hall destroyed in the Taiping Rebellion and not rebuilt. It will be noticed that only two of the local businesses have guild-halls of their own. It commonly happens that the principal dealers in a trade are natives of one province, or of one district in a province, and have no need of other guild-halls than those of their province or district.

Few of the guilds have prospered, and for the most part the halls are in poor condition; but the Manchurian (built in 1865), the Hunan (in 1865), and the Liang Kwang (in 1883)—all of which were designed specially as lodging-places for expectant officials while waiting appointment—are exceptions.

The Hunan guild-hall may be taken as a specimen. It was built in 1865, as before stated, by the efforts and mainly at the expense of P'ENG YÜ-LIN (彭玉麟), who was afterwards Naval High Commissioner on the Yangtze, and was enlarged 30 years later by CH'EN SHIH (陳澧), then Provincial Judge at Soochow, who contributed a large amount to build a theatre and restore the compound wall. Hunan men assigned to Kiangsu as expectant officials may live there, paying a fixed rate of 3,000 cash a month as "rice money," and without paying rent, but contributing, according to their means, from Ta 50 to Ta 200 a year. Those without means need not contribute, but "rice money" is compulsory. From the money thus received, a gatekeeper, cook, and coolie for the care of the premises are paid. At the Liang Kwang Hui-kuan the residents provide their own food, and there is a rule that officials passing through shall not have claim to lodgings there.

The affairs of a guild are in charge of a manager, who is elected by the members. The term of office may be one, two, or three years—three years appears to be the limit. The manager may give his whole time to the business of the guild, or he may have other business and attend at the guild-hall only at stated times. He is usually paid a salary; 4,000 or 5,000 cash a month is stated to be the lowest—10,000 the highest—salary. Fellow-provincials coming to Soochow may lodge temporarily at the guild-halls, if their respectability is guaranteed. The guilds act as charitable societies, and assist fellow-provincials left destitute here, provide passage money for their return, etc., and in case of death without relatives, provide burial. The expenses of the guilds are met by yearly contributions in proportion to the means of the members.

(x.) The following have held office as Governors at Soochow in the last 10 years:—

NAME	Until	REMARKS
KANG I.....	剛毅	1892 Appointed Governor of Kwangtung.
K'UEI CHÜN.....	奎俊	1895 Retired into mourning.
CHAO SHU-CH'IAO.....	趙舒翹	1897 Appointed Vice-President of Board of Punishments.
K'UEI CHÜN.....	奎俊	1898 " Governor General of Szechwan.
T'Ê SHOU.....	德壽	1899 " " of Kwangtung.
LU CH'UAN-LIN.....	鹿傳霖	1900 Summoned to Court.
NIEH CH'U-K'UEI.....	森根榮	— Still in office (31st December 1901).

The following Kiangsu men have achieved some distinction elsewhere:—

NAME	LAST POST.
CHANG LIEN-KUEI.....	張聯桂 Governor of Kwangsi; retired 1895.
CH'EN I.....	陳彝 " Peking; killed by Boxers 1900.
CHIANG PIAO.....	江標 Literary Chancellor of Hunan; ordered into retirement 1898; died at Soochow 1899.
Hsü P'U.....	徐郵 President of Board of Rites 1901.
Hsien FU-CH'ENG.....	薛福成 Vice-President of Censorate; died 1894.
HUNG CHÜN.....	洪鈞 Vice-President of Board of War and Member of Tsungli Yamén; died 1893.
JEN TAO-JUNG.....	任道鎔 Governor of Chehkiang 1901.
LIAO SHOU-FENG.....	廖壽豐 " Chehkiang; retired 1898.
LIAO SHOU-HENG.....	廖壽恒 President of Board of Rites; retired 1900.
LU JUN-CH'ANG.....	陸潤庠 Vice-President of Board of Rites; retired 1900.
PIEN PAO-TI.....	卞寶第 Governor General of Min-cheh; retired 1892; died 1892.
SHEN P'ENG.....	沈鵬 Censor; cashiered 1898 and imprisoned at Soochow; released 1901.
SHENG HSUAN-HUAI.....	盛宣懷 Sub-Director Grand Court of Revision; Administrator General of Chinese Telegraphs, the China Merchants Steam Navigation Company, and Lu-Han and Southern Railways; Commercial Relations Revision Commissioner 1901.
SHIH NIEN-TSU.....	史念祖 Governor of Kwangsi; cashiered 1897.
WENG T'UNG-HOU.....	翁同龢 Assistant Grand Secretary; ordered into retirement and debarred from future employment 1898; under nominal surveillance.
WU TA-CH'ENG.....	吳大澂 Assistant to Generalissimo of Forces 1895; deprived of rank, ordered to vacate post, and called to Peking, 1895; not re-employed; in retirement at Soochow. Served as 書院山長 at Nanking in 1897.
YÜN TSU-I.....	惲祖翼 Governor of Chehkiang; retired into mourning 1901.
YÜN YEN-PIN.....	惲彥彬 Vice-President of Board of Works; retired 1898.

(y.)

(z.) There is no indication now that Soochow will see much change. The businesses of weaving silk piece goods and embroidering will probably remain here; for the water, clear air, nearness to the raw material, and deftness of the people are distinct advantages. There seems, no inducement to build more factories. If the Shanghai-Nanking Railway is made it will increase the tendency to resort to the larger market of Shanghai; but its surroundings, climate, society, literary traditions, and standing, as capital of the province, will keep Soochow a favourite place of residence. There is nothing now to presage for it any more important position.

C. C. CLARKE,

Commissioner of Customs.

CUSTOM HOUSE,

SOOCHOW, 31st December 1901.

APPENDIX.

NATIVE CRAFT TRADING TO SOOCHOW.

NAME.	Cost when New.	Usual No. of Crew.	Usual Places of Trade.	REMARKS.
公司船.....	\$ 1,000 to 1,800	5 to 7	Shanghai and Hangchow.....	Passenger barges towed by steam-launches.
滿江紅.....	800 „ 1,300	6 „ 10	Throughout the province and on the Yangtze.	The largest kind of Native house-boat. Principally used by travelling officials and gentry.
湖廣船.....	800 „ 1,200	10 „ 12	„ „ „ „	Large cargo-carrying junks from the Yangtze and places north of it.
紅頭船.....	600 „ 1,000	5 „ 7	Shanghai and Hangchow.....	Usually known as "Ningpo junk." Generally laden with coal and stone.
太湖船.....	200 „ 1,000	3 „ 8	Hu-chou and other T'ai-hu towns.....	Heavily constructed lake boats which carry cargo and passengers across the T'ai-hu.
無錫快.....	400 „ 900	4 „ 7	All inland waters in the province south of the Yangtze.	The most common form of Native house-boat and the kind usually towed by steam-launches.
蒲鞋頭.....	350 „ 800	4 „ 6	„ „ „ „	Similar to the above, but owing to a different arrangement of the rooms, better adapted for carrying cargo.
南灣子.....	400 „ 700	5 „ 8	All inland waters and on the Yangtze..	Similar to the 無錫快
烏山船.....	200 „ 700	3 „ 4	Shanghai and Chehkiang.....	Another kind of "Ningpo junk."
牡丹頭.....	400 „ 700	5 „ 8	Places on and north of the Yangtze.....	Cargo-carrying junks of the same class as the 湖廣船.
沙飛船.....	400 „ 700	5 „ 7	„ „ „ „	„ „ „ „
橫快子.....	300 „ 600	5 „ 8	„ „ „ „	Similar to but with a lower house than the 滿江紅.
溪船.....	200 „ 600	3 „ 6	Chehkiang.....	Chehkiang passenger-boats which rarely carry cargo.
絲網船.....	300 „ 600	4 „ 6	All inland waters south of the Yangtze	Similar to the 無錫快.
大網船.....	300 „ 500	4 „ 6	T'ai-hu.....	These boats carry fish from the T'ai-hu for sale in Soochow.
邵伯划子.....	200 „ 450	4 „ 6	All inland waters and on the Yangtze..	Cargo-boats from the northern part of the province. Occasionally carry passengers.
石頭船.....	300 „ 400	6 „ 8	Places in the vicinity of Soochow.....	Ordinarily used for carriage of stone.
鍋釣子.....	200 „ 400	4 „ 6	Kiangsi.....	Kiangsi junks which appear in small numbers laden with Kiangsi produce.
山上船.....	150 „ 400	3 „ 5	Islands in the T'ai-hu.....	Large 快船 which carry cargo and passengers from the T'ai-hu district.
常熟快.....	160 „ 400	3 „ 5	All inland waters south of the Yangtze	Similar to but usually smaller than the 無錫快.

NAME.	Cost when New.	Usual No. of Crew.	Usual Places of Trade.	REMARKS.
海寧船.....	\$ 200 to 300	3 to 5	Chehkiang.....	Chehkiang junks, usually laden with wine and joss paper from Chehkiang.
航船.....	100 „ 300	3 „ 6	Cities in the neighbourhood of Soochow	Boats which ply regularly to and fro between Soochow and the neighbouring cities with passengers and light cargo.
雙開門.....	120 „ 250	3 „ 5	„ „ „ „	Various forms of passenger sampans.
吳江快.....	70 „ 200	2 „ 4	„ „ „ „	„ „ „ „
盧墟快.....	60 „ 150	2 „ 4	„ „ „ „	„ „ „ „
小快船.....	50 „ 150	2 „ 3	Places in the near vicinity of Soochow	„ „ „ „
關快.....	25 „ 50	2 „ 3	„ „ „ „	„ „ „ „
米包子.....	150 „ 200	3 „ 5	All inland waters in the province.....	Rice-boats; specially constructed for carrying grain.
料匹子.....	30 „ 60	2 „ 3	Villages near Soochow.....	Small cargo-boats.
南頭船.....	30 „ 60	2 „ 3	„ „ „ „	Passenger sampans with a mat covering only.
脚划船.....	15 „ 30	1 „ 2	Shanghai, Hangchow, and other large cities.	Letter-boats, or foot-boats. Used chiefly for carrying Native mail matter.
滾釣子.....	25 „ 30	3 „ 4	Villages near Soochow.....	Small fish-boats which convey fish to market.
尖頭船.....	20 „ 25	2 „ 3	„ „ „ „	The ordinary open country boats used by farmers.

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